

IID
HISTORICAL DICTIONARY *of*
VENEZUELA



TOMÁS STRAKA,
GUILLERMO GUZMÁN MIRABAL,
AND ALEJANDRO E. CÁCERES

THIRD
EDITION

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HISTORICAL DICTIONARY

The historical dictionaries present essential information on a broad range of subjects, including American and world history, art, business, cities, countries, cultures, customs, film, global conflicts, international relations, literature, music, philosophy, religion, sports, and theater. Written by experts, all contain highly informative introductory essays on the topic and detailed chronologies that, in some cases, cover vast historical time periods but still manage to heavily feature more recent events.

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and Alejandro E. Cáceres

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Editor's Foreword

Venezuela was colonized in 1522 and remained a Spanish colony until 1811, when it became independent, although it was not a country of its own until 1830. Conditions during Spanish rule were not particularly good, at least not for the decreasing indigenous population, or the blacks, or the whites who were not well off. And it has only improved, for some at least, in fits and starts during the two centuries since then. Indeed, every time things looked good, something happened to upset most plans. The most recent ups and downs came in a relatively brief period of democracy, interrupted by the coming of a military man as ruler (although not in a coup), namely Hugo Chávez, who was fine as long as the oil price was high, because Venezuela has more oil reserves than any other country, but harder to bear with when the price dropped sharply. After Chávez, with his admitted charm and appeal to part of the population, there was his assistant, Nicolas Maduro, less charming, less talented, and without enough money to solve all problems and make everyone happy. Thus, there has been a growing opposition, put down by force, but for how long? What comes next? That is anybody's guess.

Obviously, it will be easier to guess—although in Venezuela nothing is ever certain—thanks to this wonderful *Historical Dictionary of Venezuela*. It is big, bigger than most volumes in this series and most other sources, and packed with useful information on people, places, institutions, and events. It also has a long and admittedly complicated chronology as well as a list of acronyms without which it is hard to even read about the country. The introduction sums things up nicely and will be especially useful for newcomers. Then there is a large and well-organized bibliography, of items in English and Spanish, pointing to other sources of information. Admittedly, it does not have everything one could want, but it comes very close to that, and there is no real competition elsewhere. So do read about the past and into the present although, as said, the future is anybody's guess and now more so than at most times.

This volume was written not by one specialist but three. They are all related to the Universidad Católica Andrés Bello of Caracas and have somewhat different backgrounds and orientations in order to cover the ground more thoroughly. Guillermo Guzmán Mirabal is specialized in contemporary

and business history. Alejandro E. Caceres teaches postgraduate courses on business and economic history. And Tomás Straka is a professor of history and politics as well as an author and columnist and a member of the National Academy of History. Between them they have covered what is a pretty big country, with a population of 31 million, still with access to a lot of oil and with many hardworking and talented people who—if they finally get things right—could turn Venezuela into a real powerhouse. Let us therefore hope that the next turn is upward.

Jon Woronoff
Series Editor

Acknowledgments

Every book is the result of a collective effort, especially a book with the characteristics and size of this dictionary. Since the first moment, we had the enthusiastic support of colleagues, friends, and family who helped us in the tasks of seeking and processing information; choosing, amid the ocean of possibilities, the entries that were relevant to include; and even reviewing the English language, which is not the mother tongue of any of the three authors. In this sense, we cannot fail to express our gratitude to our colleague Professor Omar Osorio Amoretti of Universidad Simón Bolívar of Caracas, who on several occasions was able to provide valuable help in gathering data; to our colleague Professor María Soledad Hernández of the Universidad Católica Andrés Bello, who made a significant contribution by putting us on the right track in many respects; to our talented and resourceful assistants Jessica Guilén, Daniela Moreno, Mercedes Sosa, Yrángela Lavorgna, Abraham Salazar, and Juan Fernando Bernardinelli, who provided effective support in many ways; and to Professor Esther Mobilia of Universidad Central de Venezuela, whose permanent assistance was key to getting this work finished on time and in the quality required. Last but not least, we cannot leave out our editor, Jon Woronoff, whose patience and genuine consideration in the face of delays will be always a reason for gratitude. In the same way, his systematic indications allowed us to give form to the manuscript that became this present volume. To all of them, thank you very much.

Reader's Note

Because Spanish is the language of Venezuela, many terms in this dictionary are given in that language, including common terms, names of organizations, and titles of written works, usually with English translation. In addition, in order to facilitate the rapid and efficient location of information and to make this book as useful a reference tool as possible, extensive cross-references have been provided in the dictionary section. Within individual entries, terms that have their own entries are in **boldface type** the first time they appear. Related terms that do not appear in the text are indicated in the *See also*. *See* refers to other entries that deal with the topic.

Acronyms and Abbreviations

AD	Acción Democrática
ALBA	Alianza Bolivariana para los Pueblos de Nuestra América
ALCASA	Aluminios del Caroni, S.A.; Aluminum of Caroni, S.A.
ARDI	Asociación Revolucionaria de Izquierda
Bs.	bolívars (currency)
CADIVI	Consejo de Administracion de Divisas
CDC	Colon Development Company
CELARG	Centro de Estudios Latinoamericanos Rómulo Gallegos
CIGMA	Complejo Industrial Gran Mariscal de Ayacucho
CONICIT	Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Tecnológicas
COPEI	Comité de Organización Política Electoral Independiente
COPRE	Comisión Presidencial para la Reforma del Estado
CORIMON	Corporacion Industrial Montana
CPC	Caribbean Petroleum Company
CTV	Confederación de los Trabajadores de Venezuela
CVF	Corporacion Venezolana de Fomento
CVG	Corporación Venezolana de Guayana
CVP	Corporación Venezolana de Petróleo
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (known as CEPAL in Spanish)
EDELCA	Electrificacion del Caroni, C.A.
FALN	Fuerzas Armadas de Liberación Nacional
FEDECAMARAS	Federación de Cámaras y Asociaciones de Comercio y Producción de Venezuela
FLN	Frente de Liberación Nacional
FTAA	Free Trade Area of Americas (known in Spanish as ALCA)
GDP	gross domestic product
IDEA	Instituto de Estudios Avanzados

IVIC	Instituto Venezolano de Investigaciones Científicas
IVNIC	Instituto Venezolano de Neurología e Investigaciones Cerebrales
LBPV	Liga de Béisbol Profesional Venezolano
LGBT	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender
MACCSI	Museo de Arte Contemporáneo de Caracas Sofía Imber
MAS	Movimiento al Socialismo
MBR-200	Movimiento Bolivariano 200
MEP	Movimiento Electoral del Pueblo
MIR	Movimiento de Izquierda Revolucionaria
MINERVEN	Compañía General de Minería de Venezuela, C.A.
MVR	Movimiento Quinta República
OAS	Organization of American States (known in Spanish as OEA)
OPEC	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (known in Spanish as OPEP)
ORVE	Movimiento de Organización Venezolana
PCV	Partido Comunista de Venezuela
PDN	Partido Democrático Nacional
PDV	Partido Democrático Venezolano
PDVSA	Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.
PJ	Primero Justicia
PSUV	Partido Socialista Unido de Venezuela; United Socialist Party of Venezuela
RCTV	Radio Caracas Televisión
RECADI	Regimen de Cambios Diferenciales
SIDOR	Siderurgica del Orinoco
UCV	Universidad Central de Venezuela
UN	United Nations
UNASUR	Union de Naciones Sudamericanas
UNT	Un Nuevo Tiempo
UPM	Union Patriótica Militar
URD	Union Republicana Democratica
VENALUM	Industria Venezolana de Aluminios; Venezuelan Industry of Aluminum
VOC	Venezuelan oil concessions
VP	Voluntad Popular



As of June 2017, the Esequibo Territory, located west of Esequibo River, is under claim by Venezuela to Guyana, and the matter has not been definitely settled

Chronology

1498 On his third voyage, Columbus arrived at Trinidad Island and continental Paria Peninsula, Venezuela.

1499 Juan de la Cosa, Alonso de Ojeda, and cartographer Amerigo Vespucci traveled around the Venezuelan coast.

1500 Rodrigo de Bastidas surveyed the Venezuelan western coast, now known as Lago de Maracaibo.

1501 The Spanish crown appointed Alonso de Ojeda governor of Coquivacoa in Venezuela.

1503 By royal decree, conquerors were authorized to enslave the Carib aborigines.

1515 Alonso de Ojeda died without conquering the Lago de Maracaibo zone.

1520 The Crown agreed with the Dominicans to found colonizer settlements from Paria to Santa Marta.

1521 Conqueror Rodrigo de Bastidas received a capitulation to settle on Trinidad Island.

1522 By royal decree, the province of Margarita was created and given to Marcelo de Villalobos.

1527 Juan de Ampies founded Santa Ana de Coro.

1528 Charles V gave perpetual rights to govern and exploit the Province of Venezuela to the Welser, a merchant-bankers family from Augsburg. This is the first official document with the name of Venezuela. Dutch pirates looted Margarita and Cubagua Islands.

1529 First Welser governor, Ambrosio Alfinger, arrived in Coro.

1530 Nicolaus Federmann began to explore mainland from Coro.

1531 Diego de Ordáz founded the San Miguel de Paria Ville on the Venezuelan eastern shores. Pope Clement VII created the Coro bishopric.

- 1538** Bishop Rodrigo de Bastidas was named governor of Venezuela.
- 1539** By royal decree, Jorge Spira was named governor of Venezuela and Vela de Coro.
- 1540** Governor Spira died. Bishop Bastidas took charge again.
- 1545** Juan de Carvajal founded El Tocuyo.
- 1546** The Spanish king, Charles V, decreed the end of the Welser government in Venezuelan territory. Juan de Carvajal killed Phillip von Hutten. New governor Juan Pérez de Tolosa sentenced Carvajal to death.
- 1552** Negro Miguel's Uprising. Juan de Villegas founded Barquisimeto.
- 1556** Diego García Paredes founded Trujillo.
- 1558** Friar Pedro de Agreda was designated bishop of Coro.
- 1561** Juan de Maldonado founded San Cristóbal. "The Tyrant" Lope de Aguirre took over Margarita Island.
- 1565** English corsairs attacked Cumaná and Borburata.
- 1567** Diego de Losada founded Santiago de León de Caracas.
- 1569** Juan de Trejo founded Carora.
- 1576** Caracas became the capital of the province of Venezuela.
- 1584** Sebastián Díaz de Alfaro founded San Sebastián de los Reyes.
- 1590** Simón de Bolívar, ancestor of El Libertador, was named attorney.
- 1593** Juan Fernández de León founded Guanare.
- 1595** The English corsair Walter Raleigh arrived on Venezuelan shores.
- 1602** The Royal Dutch West India Company was founded.
- 1613** The episcopal seat was moved from Coro to Caracas.
- 1622** The Araya castle was built to protect the shores and salt flats from Dutch pirate attacks.
- 1628** The Jesuits founded their first school in Mérida.
- 1640** The first Singing School was founded in Caracas.
- 1641** San Bartolome's earthquake destroyed Caracas.
- 1642** An English fleet attacked La Guaira's harbor and city.

- 1650** Capuchin fathers founded Concepción de Píritu Mission. The Virgin Mary appeared to Coromoto near Guanare.
- 1653** Jesuit fathers established themselves in the Guayana region.
- 1661** Jesuit fathers established themselves in the Los Llanos region.
- 1664** Construction of the Seminary of Caracas was finished.
- 1671** José de Oviedo y Baños, author of the *Historia de la Conquista y población de la Provincia de Venezuela*, was born in Bogotá.
- 1673** The Seminary of Santa Rosa was established in Caracas.
- 1682** The bishop friar Antonio de González, founder of Seminary of Santa Rosa, died in Trujillo.
- 1684** Diego de Baños y Sotomayor was named bishop of Caracas.
- 1692** Caracas suffered from a smallpox plague and yellow fever.
- 1700** Phillip of Bourbon was named king of Spain at the Palace of Versailles.
- 1721** The Spanish king Phillip V created the Royal and Pontifical University of Caracas from the Seminary of Santa Rosa.
- 1726** The father of El Libertador, Juan Vicente Bolívar, was born in Caracas.
- 1728** A royal decree granted the Guipuzcoana Company a trade monopoly in the province of Caracas.
- 1730** Andrés López del Rosario, the *zambo Andresote*, rose up in arms against the Guipuzcoana Company.
- 1735** Jesuit fathers founded a house school in Maracaibo.
- 1739** Father Sojo, founder of the first Music Academy in Caracas, was born in Guatire City.
- 1741** The first of Father Gumilla's books, *Orinoco Ilustrado*, was published in Spain.
- 1742** Trinidad Island was placed under Caracas's jurisdiction. The province of Venezuela was managerially separated from the Viceroyalty of Santa Fe.
- 1743** An English fleet attacked La Guaira but was defeated, and the expedition ended in great failure.
- 1749** Juan Francisco de León rose up in arms against the Guipuzcoana Company.

- 1750** Francisco de Miranda was born in Caracas.
- 1760** A royal decree created the Arms School of Venezuela.
- 1766** A devastating earthquake occurred in Cumaná.
- 1767** The Spanish king Charles III decreed the Jesuits' expulsion from all of the Hispano-American colonies.
- 1769** Caracas's Town Hall requested from the king the creation of a royal court.
- 1777** The General Captaincy of Venezuela was created by royal decree.
- 1783** Simón Bolívar, the future Libertador, was born in Caracas.
- 1784** By royal decree, the responsibility for handling Venezuelan trade was taken from the Guipuzcoana Company. The Royal and Pontifical University of Caracas was separated from the Seminary of Santa Rosa.
- 1786** The Royal Court of Caracas was created.
- 1788** King Charles III died.
- 1789** The French Revolution began, which would have repercussions in the Hispano-American colonies.
- 1790** The Seminary of Buenaventura was founded in Mérida.
- 1796** A big *mantuanos* demonstration took place in Caracas's Town Hall against the royal decree "Gracias al Sacar."
- 1797** The Gual, España, and Picornell Conspiracy was unveiled in La Guaira.
- 1799** José María España was hanged in Caracas on charges of conspiracy. Alexander von Humboldt arrived to Caracas.
- 1800** Humboldt ascended Ávila Mountain for the first time.
- 1803** María Teresa Rodríguez del Toro, Simón Bolívar's wife, died at the age of 21.
- 1806** Francisco de Miranda arrived to the Coro and Ocumare shores in a liberation expedition that ultimately failed.
- 1808** Napoleon invaded Spain and supplanted both the king and his successor. The first printing machine arrived in La Guaira harbor and contributed to the foundation of the first Venezuelan paper, *La Gazeta de Caracas*.
- 1809** Vicente Emparan was named captain general and governor of Venezuela. The *Mantuanos* Conspiracy failed.

1810 Several events in the Caracas Town Hall led to the captain general's overthrow and the creation of the Junta Suprema Conservadora de los Derechos de Fernando VII (Caracas Junta).

1811 Declaration and signing of the Independence Act. New printing machines were introduced and some other newspapers founded.

1812 First Venezuelan Constitution sanctioned. An earthquake destroyed Caracas and several cities in the country. The first hostilities with the king's delegates began. Miranda surrendered to Domingo Monteverde, and the First Republic was lost. Bolívar fled away to Cartagena de Indias and wrote "El Manifiesto de Cartagena."

1813 Bolívar walked through the Andes and arrived in Trujillo, where he signed the Guerra a Muerte Decree. He walked to Caracas and received from the Town Hall the title of Libertador. The Second Republic was born.

1814 José Tomás Boves took control of the royalist troops and defeated continuously patriotic troops. José Félix Ribas overcame Boves at La Victoria with an army of young boys. Boves walked to Caracas, while the city's population, along with their leaders, fled toward the east. The Second Republic fell to the hands of Boves's troops. Boves died at Urica.

1815 Bolívar went to Jamaica and wrote his famous "Carta de Jamaica." General Pablo Morillo arrived in Venezuela with a Spanish army to regain power.

1816 Cariaco Congress took place. Simón Bolívar's authority was disregarded, and he departed to Haiti.

1817 Manuel Carlos Piar strengthened patriotic power in Guayana as Santiago Mariño did in the east. Capuchin fathers were murdered by patriotic troops. Bolívar took over Angostura with Piar's support. Bolívar sentenced Piar to death.

1818 The weekly newspaper *El Correo del Orinoco* was first published.

1819 Congress of Angostura was installed. Bolívar gave an important speech and was named president of Venezuela. Páez triumphed at the Battle of Queseras del Medio, and Bolívar began the invasion to Nueva Granada, sealing its independence in the Battles of Pantano de Vargas and Boyaca. The Republic of Colombia (Gran Colombia) was born.

1820 Bolívar and Pablo Morillo signed the Armistice Agreement and the War Regularization Treaty at Santa Ana de Trujillo. Morillo departed for Spain.

1821 Armistice ceased and hostilities began once again. Patriotic troops achieved an important victory at Carabobo. Cumaná was taken by General José Francisco Bermúdez. The Constitution of Cúcuta was signed.

1822 Patriotic troops triumphed at Bomboná with Bolívar's leadership. General Antonio José de Sucre triumphed at Pichincha. Bolívar and José de San Martín met at Guayaquil.

1823 Spaniards and Canaries were expelled from Venezuelan territory. The naval battle of Lago de Maracaibo sealed Venezuelan independence. Bolívar began the Campaign of Peru.

1824 Sucre was named head chief of the Peruvian Army. Congress approved the Ecclesiastic Patronage Law. With Sucre's triumph at Ayacucho, the independence process was closed.

1825 Congress asked Bolívar to continue ruling and offered him one million pesos, which he rejected. Sucre organized the Republic of Bolivia.

1826 The Republic of Colombia separatist movement La Cosiata began. The Amphictyonic Congress of Panama was installed.

1827 Bolívar and Páez arrived in Caracas. Páez received the head civil and military title. Santander led the opposition party against Bolívar.

1828 Bolívar was proclaimed dictator. At Bogotá, the Santanderian conspiracy to kill Bolívar failed.

1829 Páez dictated a decree creating the Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País.

1830 Venezuela split off the Republic of Colombia, with Páez as president.

1831 Páez was elected president of Venezuela. The Mathematics Academy was created.

1834 Religious freedom was decreed, and some convents were shut down.

1835 Dr. José María Vargas was elected president of Venezuela. The Revolución de las Reformas overthrew Vargas. Páez reinstated Vargas as president.

1836 Vargas resigned from the presidency.

1837 General Carlos Soublette finished out Vargas's presidential period.

1839 General Páez assumed a second presidential term.

1840 The Liberal Party and *El Venezolano* newspaper were born.

1841 José María Baralt's work *Resumen de la Historia de Venezuela* was published in Paris. The National Bank was created.

1843 Carlos Soublette was elected president of the republic. Bolívar's remains were repatriated to Venezuela.

1845 Bolivarian Society was born, driven by General Rafael Urdaneta.

1847 General José Tadeo Monagas assumed the presidency. Antonio Leocadio Guzmán's death penalty was commuted.

1848 An attack on the Venezuelan Congress produced numerous victims.

1849 Death penalty for political crimes was eliminated. José Antonio Páez was imprisoned in Cumaná.

1851 General José Gregorio Monagas was elected president.

1854 President José Gregorio Monagas decreed the Abolition of Slavery Act.

1855 The rules of procedure for the Mines Code were published. José Tadeo Monagas was proclaimed president of the republic for a second term.

1856 Through congressional intervention, Venezuela was divided into 21 provinces. Telegraph began working in the country. The Netherlands claimed Isla de Aves.

1857 Constitution of 1830 was derogated and a new one written allowing immediate presidential reelection and an increase of the constitutional term.

1858 Monagas was overthrown by the Revolución de Marzo, led by Julián Castro. Monagas took asylum in the French legation. José Gregorio Monagas died. Castro was confirmed as president and a new constitution enacted.

1859 Federal War began in Coro with Ezequiel Zamora in charge. Pedro Gual assumed presidency and yielded to Manuel Felipe de Tovar.

1860 Ezequiel Zamora died at San Carlos.

1861 Manuel Felipe de Tovar resigned as president, and José Antonio Páez was named dictator.

1863 Federal War ended with the signing of the Treaty of Coche. Juan Crisóstomo Falcón emerged as provisional government leader.

1864 Federal Constitution of 1864 enacted.

1865 Falcón was elected president and Antonio Guzmán Blanco vice president.

1867 Azul Revolution exploded, led by José Tadeo Monagas and his son José Ruperto Monagas.

1868 Falcón resigned from presidency. José Tadeo Monagas assumed control of government.

1869 José Tadeo Monagas died. José Ruperto Monagas took charge.

1870 April Revolution began. Antonio Guzmán Blanco arrived to Caracas and defeated Monagas. Congress confirmed Guzmán as president. The Public, Free, and Obligatory Instruction Act was enacted. Conflicts between the Catholic Church and the government led to the expulsion of the archbishop of Caracas, Silvestre Guevara y Lira.

1872 The Seminary Expulsion Decree was enacted. Civil marriage was the only kind established as mandatory.

1873 Congress elected Antonio Guzmán Blanco as president. Capitol in Caracas was built. General José Antonio Páez died in New York City. A new process of urban and road infrastructure reform began in Caracas.

1874 Santísima Trinidad Church was converted into the National Pantheon.

1876 The temples of San Jacinto and San Pablo were torn apart in order to build the Market and the Municipal Theater. Bolívar's remains were moved to the National Pantheon.

1877 Francisco Linares Alcántara was elected president, and Guzmán Blanco left for France. The seven-year period was over.

1879 Linares Alcántara revealed himself as against Guzmán, and his statues were torn down. Linares died unexpectedly.

1880 Guzmán returned to Venezuela and was elected president. The five-year period began. Guzman established the bolívar as the national currency. The railroad network was begun.

1881 The Constitution was reformed. The first national census was issued. The "Canción Nacional" was made the national anthem. National electrical gas-fired development was initiated.

1882 Streetcars were inaugurated in Caracas, as were power lines.

1883 A locust infestation destroyed crops. The first locomotive of the Caracas–La Guaira Railroad arrived in the country. The Centennial Celebration of El Libertador's birthday began all over Venezuela.

1884 General Joaquín Crespo was elected president for a two-year period.

1886 The Federal Council reelected Guzmán Blanco president for a two-year period.

1887 A popular reaction against Guzmán Blanco began. The opposition press attacked Guzmán fiercely, and he decided to withdraw from government before his term ended.

1888 Hermógenes López finished out Guzmán's term, and Juan Pablo Rojas Paúl was elected president. Political liberties were reborn in Venezuelan society. The Puerto Cabello–Valencia Railroad was inaugurated.

1889 A new anti-Guzmán reaction took place, and his statues were torn down again.

1890 The Federal Council elected Raimundo Andueza Palacios president for a two-year period.

1891 Andueza proposed a new constitutional reform to continue in office.

1892 The Revolución Legalista began, led by Joaquín Crespo.

1893 Crespo took power. A new constitution was enacted.

1894 Joaquín Crespo was elected president of the republic.

1897 General José Manuel “El Mocho” Hernández campaigned actively all over the country.

1898 By an election fraud, Ignacio Andrade was proclaimed president, despite “El Mocho” Hernández's resistance. Joaquín Crespo died fighting Hernández's Revolución de Queipa.

1890 Cipriano Castro invaded from the Andes and took power in the Revolución Liberal Restauradora. Juan Vicente Gómez was second in command. The Arbitration Award of Paris was signed, establishing the Essequibo border. Antonio Guzmán Blanco died in Paris.

1900 Cipriano Castro apprehended a few bankers because of their refusal to grant a loan to the Venezuelan government.

1901 Cipriano Castro was acting president while a new constitution was enacted.

1902 Cipriano Castro was named president of the republic. The Libertadora Revolution, led by banker Manuel Antonio Matos, burst out in the south of the country with the help of foreign capital. A German–English alliance blocked Venezuelan shores, demanding debt repayment.

1903 The Castro government triumphed over the Liberadora Revolution.

1904 Divorce was legalized. The Venezuelan government began a trial against the New York and Bermudez Company.

1906 Cipriano Castro withdrew himself from power, leaving Juan Vicente Gómez in charge. Through *La Aclamación*, Castro returned to power but became sick. *La Conjura* prepared to remove Castro definitively from the presidency and from Venezuela.

1907 An oil concession was given to Antonio Aranguren.

1908 Castro left for Germany because of his illness. Gómez stayed in charge and led a coup, assuming the head of an interim government.

1909 Juan Vicente Gómez assumed the presidency.

1910 The construction of the Central Highway of Táchira began.

1911 By presidential decree, the Military Academy of Venezuela was created.

1912 Royal Dutch Shell arrives in Venezuela acquiring Caribbean Petroleum Company to General Asphalt, marking the start of the oil industry at a large scale.

1914 World War I began in Europe. A new constitution was enacted. The first commercial oil well was discovered by the Caribbean Petroleum Company (Shell) in the Western Venezuela, named Zumaque 1.

1915 Congress reelected Gómez as the commander-in-chief and Victorino Márquez Bustillos as the acting president.

1917 The first oil exports are recorded.

1918 World War I ended with the signing of the Treaty of Versailles.

1919 Dr. José Gregorio Hernández died in a car accident.

1920 The Military Aviation School was created.

1922 The Constitution was reformed, and Juan Vicente Gómez was reelected president; the first vice president was his brother “Juancho” and second vice president was Gómez’s son José Vicente Gómez.

1923 First Vice President “Juancho” Gómez was murdered at Miraflores Palace.

1924 Former president Cipriano Castro died in Puerto Rico.

1925 The Trans-Andean Highway was inaugurated. New constitutional reform was enacted. The blowout (Reventon) of the Los Barrosos 2 oil well,

in western Venezuela, by the Venezuelan Oil Concessions (Shell) marks the start of large oil production in Venezuela.

1928 The student movement *Generación del 28* started, with representatives including Pío Tamayo, Jóvito Villalba, Rómulo Betancourt, Andrés Eloy Blanco, and Gustavo Machado. The Central University of Venezuela was closed because of protests against Gómeism. Military uprising against Gómez failed.

1929 Juan Bautista Pérez was left in charge of the presidency, and Gómez continued as commander-in-chief of the army forces. *Falke* invasion took place against Gómez, led by Román Delgado Chabaud.

1930 Commemoration of the Centenary of Bolívar's death. External debt was repaid entirely.

1931 Communist Party was created. Congress reelected Gómez for a seven-year period.

1932 University of Hamburg granted Gómez a doctorate honoris causa.

1935 Juan Vicente Gómez died on 17 December. Political prisoners were released and exiles returned home. Several revolts took place all over the country. The minister of war and navy, Eleazar López Contreras, became acting president.

1936 Congress elected General López Contreras constitutional president. The city of Caracas rose up against the government on 14 February. A constitutional reform took place. The Plan de Febrero was created. The first Work Act was approved by Congress.

1939 World War II began in Europe.

1940 The Central Bank of Venezuela was created. The first Statutory Social Insurance Act was created by Congress.

1941 General Isaias Medina Angarita, former minister of war and navy, was elected president of the republic. *Acción Democrática* Party was legalized.

1943 Both the Hydrocarbons Act and the Income Taxes Acts were enacted.

1944 Constitutional ban of communism was eliminated. Women were allowed to vote in municipal elections.

1945 The Communist Party of Venezuela was legalized. World War II ended after the surrender of German and Japanese troops. President Isaias Medina Angarita was overthrown by a military coup and was replaced by a civil-military junta.

1946 For the first time, universal, direct, and secret elections took place in Venezuela, electing a constitutional assembly, which enacted a new constitution. The “No More Concessions” policy was implemented.

1947 The first democratic constitution of the republic was enacted, as was the Agrarian Reform Law. The first direct election to choose a new president of the republic was held.

1948 Rómulo Gallegos assumed the presidency of the republic. Later that year, Gallegos was overthrown by a military coup. A military junta was formed chaired by Carlos Delgado Chalbaud, Marcos Pérez Jiménez, and Luis Felipe Llovera Páez. Political demobilization occurred. A military dictatorship was beginning.

1950 The military junta president, Carlos Delgado Chalbaud, was murdered, and Germán Suárez Flamerich replaced him.

1951 A constant wave of migrants arrived in the country. Hard repression and persecution against the members of opposition political parties took place.

1952 Electoral fraud was committed, and Marcos Pérez Jiménez took power. Acción Democrática and the Communist Party were outlawed. Leonardo Ruiz Pineda, former underground leader of Acción Democrática, was murdered. Congress confirmed Pérez Jiménez as president.

1953 The repressive machinery of the state strengthened, just as the National Security Police and two concentration camps were activated at Guasima and Sacupana.

1955 Oil investments and prices increased.

1956 The Suez Canal was nationalized. New concessions were assigned and production and oil prices raised.

1957 The Central University of Venezuela was shut down. The Patriotic Junta was born to organize resistance against the dictatorship.

1958 An attempted military coup against Pérez Jiménez led by Hugo Trejo failed early in the year following a national call for a general strike against the regime. Pérez Jiménez fled the country on 23 January, and a military government junta installed on his place, led by Wolfgang Larrazábal. Civilians also were part of the junta. The Governability Pact, known as the Pacto de Puntofijo, was signed. Presidential elections were held in December, and Rómulo Betancourt, member of Acción Democrática, was elected president.

1959 Rómulo Betancourt assumed the presidency.

1960 Acción Democrática Party divided in two and the Movimiento de Izquierda Revolucionaria (MIR) was born. An attempt against President Rómulo Betancourt's life took place.

1961 A new constitution was enacted. Armed struggle began.

1962 General Pérez Jiménez was extradited from the United States. Military uprisings occurred in Carúpano, Barcelona, and Puerto Cabello.

1963 Raúl Leoni, a member of Acción Democrática, won the presidential election. Guerrilla warfare increased, as did assassination attempts, murders, and abductions.

1964 Raúl Leoni assumed the presidency and formed a coalition of several political parties known as the Broad Base. A *modus vivendi* was signed with the Vatican, replacing the Patronage.

1966 The Geneva Agreement regarding Essequibo Territory was signed.

1967 The guerrilla movement definitively failed, which led to a tactical retreat. The Democratic Peace Process started that year. A very intense earthquake shook the country.

1968 The Supreme Court of Justice sentenced Marcos Pérez Jiménez. The COPEI Party won elections with the candidacy of Rafael Caldera.

1969 The Christian-Social Government of Rafael Caldera began. The Communist Party was legalized. Diplomatic relations with Panama, Peru, and Argentina were reopened. The Andean Pact was created. The negotiation process with guerrillas led to the signing of the *Pacificación*.

1970 Diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union were reestablished. The *Protocolo de Puerto España* regarding the Essequibo was signed.

1971 Both the Oil Reversion Act and the Natural Gas State Production Act were enacted.

197 Democratic elections took place in December, with Acción Democrática triumphing.

1974 Carlos Andrés Pérez assumed the presidency. With a global energy crisis, oil demand increased.

1975 The nationalization of the oil industry was discussed and approved by Congress. The company *Petróleos de Venezuela* was born.

1976 The nationalization of oil industries was effected. Oil prices increased.

1978 Democratic elections led to the winning of the Partido Socialcristiano COPEI.

1979 Dr. Luis Herrera Campins assumed the presidency. The first municipal councilmen elections were held.

1980 Court proceedings to prosecute several cases of administrative corruption in the Carlos Andrés Pérez government began. Oil prices increased.

1982 A new civil code was enacted. The Museo de los Niños was inaugurated.

1983 The bicentennial of the birth of Simón Bolívar was recognized. The country's currency was devalued with respect to the dollar. Foreign currency exchange control was inaugurated with the Oficina del Régimen de Cambio Diferencial (RECADI). Metro de Caracas, a massive transportation service, began. The Teatro Teresa Carreño began operating. Contadora Group was constituted to help the peace process in Central America. In the presidential elections, Acción Democrática was proclaimed winner.

1984 Dr. Jaime Lusinchi took control as president.

1985 Pope John Paul II visited Venezuela. The government refinanced external debt. The Comisión Presidencial para la Reforma del Estado (COPRE) was created.

1987 External debt was restructured.

1988 In the presidential elections, Acción Democrática was proclaimed winner.

1989 Carlos Andrés Pérez took possession of the office. A neoliberal economic model, called "the economic package," was applied. The social movement called El Caracazo rose up against the economic adjustments. The first direct elections for governors, municipalities, and deputies were held in December. Privatizations of state-owned companies began.

1992 On 4 February (4F), a coup attempt occurred against constitutional president Carlos Andrés Pérez. On 27 November, a second coup attempt also failed.

1993 The political trial of President Carlos Andrés Pérez began with his removal from power. Ramón J. Velázquez was proclaimed acting president. Presidential elections were won by the Convergencia Party.

1994 Dr. Rafael Caldera took possession of the office. A presidential pardon was given to the coup perpetrators of 1992. The banking industry was intervened in and the state provided financial assistance.

1996 Apertura Petrolera (oil opening) began through tenders.

1997 The social benefits regime was reformed.

1998 Hugo Chávez, the former military leader of the 4F coup, won presidential elections.

1999 Hugo Chávez assumed the presidency. A national constituent assembly was held. A new constitution was approved. A landslide occurred in Vargas State.

2000 General elections were held to legitimate the new public powers. Special powers were given to the president.

2001 National Strike against Hugo Chavez unpopular decrees.

2002 The Governability Pact was signed by different political actors of the government and the opposition. Desertions occurred in the National Army Force. A 24-hour national strike occurred. Mass dismissals of PDVSA managers were made by President Chávez on national television. On 11 April, a massive street protest and subsequent Puente Llaguno Massacre in Caracas occurred. President Chávez resigned and a brief government was installed led by Fedecámaras president Pedro Carmona Estanga. Chávez returned to power on 13 April. The oil strike began and lasted for 63 days, failing in its objectives.

2003 The social program development called “Misiones” started. Persecution against opposition parties and other political dissidents began. An exchange control was established.

2004 The revoking referendum was activated against President Chávez. It took place, and the no option was the winner. President Chávez remained in power. Elections for governors and mayors were held. The national currency was devalued.

2005 The opposition abstained from legislative elections. The Chavismo triumphed in the National Assembly, with abstention of around 75 percent. National currency again devalued.

2006 Hugo Chávez was reelected president. Expropriation of lands and productive companies occurred.

2007 President Chávez took office and announced the “Socialism of the 21st Century.” More expropriations and seizures of lands and companies occurred. Several lands were invaded in cities and towns. The government decided not to renew the concession of Radio Caracas Televisión, the oldest broadcasting station in the country. The student movement begins. A referendum for a constitutional reform was presented by the president and was not approved.

2008 Elections for governors, mayors, and councilmen were held. Profound crisis regarding water, electricity, and telephone services begins, with rationing and some blackouts registered across the country. Shortages of staple food and goods start to become more frequent. National currency again devalued.

2009 Thirty-two national radio stations were closed.

2010 New national currency devaluation occurs.

2011 Misión Vivienda was launched with a view to future elections in 2012. President Chavez informs that was diagnosed with cancer, is operated in Cuba, and returns to Venezuela starting an electoral public spending spree, along with harsher controls and regulations.

2012 Opposition primary elections were won by Henrique Capriles. Despite his illness, Chávez was the Chavista candidate and won the election, leaving Nicolás Maduro in charge of the presidency and going to Cuba for treatment.

2013 President Chávez died. New elections were held, and Nicolás Maduro won with rumors of fraud. Venezuela withdrew from the Inter-American Court of Human Rights. Inflation and shortages occur along with strikes and protests.

2014 Protests are held on 12 February. Leopoldo López and a group of students are jailed. Repression and violations of human rights occur.

2015 National currency was devalued again. Borders were closed. Persecution of private companies began. Shortage, scarcity, lines, riots, and repression became the norm. Elections for a new National Assembly were won mostly by the opposition. Political, humanitarian, and economic crisis continued.

2016 The Supreme Court declared the National Assembly in contempt. The government suspended the request for a recall referendum against President Maduro made by the opposition. Yearly inflation hit about 550 percent.

2017 In April, the executive's pretension to assume the functions of the legislature generated a wave of protests for more than 65 continuous days (as of early June), which was violently suppressed. The government announced the convening of a constituent assembly by 30 July. Venezuela formalized its withdrawal from the OAS.

Introduction

PERIODIZATION

As a convention, Venezuelan history is divided into three large periods: pre-Hispanic or pre-Columbian, colonial, and republican. This periodization has received criticism due to its essentially political character and the ethnocentric bias that some scholars associate with the terms “pre-Hispanic” and “pre-Columbian” since they interpret the history of the original peoples around the arrival of Europeans, neglecting their own dynamics. This categorization can also lead to the impression that original peoples are a matter of the past, disappeared following the European conquest, when they very much still exist. In fact, after the proclamation of Venezuela as a multiethnic and pluricultural nation in the Constitution of 1999, original peoples have taken on a more prominent role.

In addition, the transition stage known as the *Descubrimiento*, or Discovery, from 1498 to 1520 has been the subject of criticism since, according to some researchers, it glorifies the process of colonialism without considering the cost of the European arrival for the peoples inhabiting the territory. Even more, it has been denominated “the European invasion” by indigenist academics and activists.

Notwithstanding, the most notable weakness of the conventional periodization is that it ignores relevant economic aspects that changed the life of Venezuela, in particular the rise of the oil industry. According to authors like geographer Ramón Tovar and Arturo Uslar Pietri, this represents a historical landmark similar in scale to the arrival of Europeans for the life of the people of the Venezuelan territory.

Last but not least, traditional historiography gave excessive relevance to the period of foundation of the nation-state, when the country separated from Spain and adopted the republican form, and known as the period of Independence (1810–1830). This was taken to the extreme of considering the whole history of the region as synthesized in these two decades, especially in the life and works of Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), known already in life as the

Liberator and later considered the father of the homeland. Contemporary historiography has fought to put in context this stage within the framework of a longer history of at least five centuries.

Consequently, there are proposals of more elaborate periodization, including the contributions of Germán Carrera Damas, John Lombardi, and Federico Brito Figueroa. Nevertheless, in order to have a friendlier understanding of Venezuelan history for English readers unfamiliar with it, we will use the traditional criteria with the goal of not placing it too distant from the existing historical literature. We will also place emphasis on the topic of oil, the central importance of which we agree on with other specialists.

Thus, we will divide, in order to achieve a didactic aim, Venezuelan history into five periods: (1) original peoples or pre-Hispanic, (2) discovery and conquest, (3) the colony, (4) independence, and (5) the republic, which in turn will be divided into two stages centered on the economic activities that have largely defined Venezuelan society: the agro-export and oil-based economies.

ORIGINAL PEOPLES OR PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD

The human population of Venezuelan territory is one of the most ancient in the South American continent. According to the archeological finds at Taima-Taima, in the northwest of Venezuela, there were human groups of hunters 16,000 years ago, around 14,000 BC. Other archeological sites, like Camare, in the same region, suggest that there was human presence by 16,000 BC, around 18,000 years ago. Nevertheless, there is disagreement among specialists since these estimations challenge theories that suggest population of the American continent started no earlier than 20,000 years ago. However, human presence in South America since 15,000 years ago provides evidence that migrations from Eurasia advanced through the continent at a faster pace than earlier thought. In any case, these peoples were focused on the hunting of megafauna, which disappeared by the end of the Ice Age.

In a relevant study by archeologists José María Cruxent and Irving Rouse appearing in 1958, the long period preceding the arrival of Europeans is divided according to the following classification, already existing in U.S. anthropology: Paleo-Indian, Meso-Indian, and Neo-Indian, including Indo-Hispanic, based in the level of cultural development. *Paleo-Indians* were hunters of megafauna until their extinction, are characterized by artifacts in stone, and lived from 14,000 to 5000 BC. They were followed by the *Meso-Indians*, who possessed incipient agricultural and sea fishing ability while developing crafts in ceramic. Around 1000 BC, the *Neo-Indians* appeared and are the peoples found by the Europeans upon their arrival, which were mostly sedentary groups with some development in agriculture and other crafts and

an intense commercial activity across the Caribbean coast, along with some groups that are still nomads devoted to hunting, gathering, and fishing.

In general, there are three large cultural areas defined by ethnic and linguistic features in the current Venezuelan territory: the Caribbean, in the Caribbean Coast area from the east to the center of the coastal mountain zone in the north; the Arawak, from the center to the west of this zone; and finally the Andean. There were other cultural areas in the Llanos and Guayana, and Caribbean and Arawak peoples were present in Guayana since they are part of a large cultural area in South America ranging from Brazil and the Guayanas to the islands of Caribbean Sea and belong to two of the most relevant linguistic groups in the region.

The last migratory wave is that of the Caribbean, which arrived around the 12th century from current Brazil. In the Andean area, there were peoples of Chibcha linguistic filiation, whom in the 1930s the historian Mario Briceño-Iragorri baptized in general as Timoto-Cuicas. Even though this designation is not exact, as there were relevant differences among the aboriginal communities, it has implanted itself in Venezuelan collective memory. Even though Timoto-Cuicas had some development of terrace agriculture and stone constructions for storage or burial purposes (*los mintoyes*), and some Arawak lived in villages with wooden walls governed by *caciques*, none of them reached the level of development of the Central American or Inca peoples.

Finally, it must be said that the history of original peoples does not finish with the conquest. The *Indo-Hispanics* are the groups that resisted Spanish conquest or remained without contact with the Europeans during the colonial period, along with the peoples conquered and who became part of colonial society, even though still considered *indios*. Many of these lived in *pueblos de indios* (Indian towns), which constituted around 25 percent of the population at the time of independence in 1810. Some of these were missions, but most were controlled by local authorities, maintaining their *caciques* and *cabildos*. The republic suppressed the caste system in 1811, and *indios* ceased to be segregated citizens. Nevertheless, the republic continued trying to assimilate them. For example, the Wayuu people, the most numerous aboriginal group in Venezuela and Colombia, previously known as the Guajiro people, have kept their freedom even now. Assimilation policy was sometimes implemented with punitive action, as at the end of the 19th century, as well as through the missions system, reestablished in 1915. Since then, the right of aborigines to live under their own culture has been gradually recognized by the state. In 1988, they were allowed basic education in their own language, and the Constitution of 1999 recognized Venezuela as a multicultural and pluriethnic nation and has a chapter regarding the rights of aboriginal peoples. According to the 2011 national census, there are around 725,000 people recognizing themselves as aborigines, divided into 20 ethnic groups. It is probable that, in

absolute terms, this is the largest aboriginal population ever to live in what is currently Venezuelan territory (at the time of European arrival, it is estimated that there were around 500,000 inhabitants).

DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST PERIOD

Traditionally, the name *Descubrimiento* or *Conquista* is given to the processes of incorporation of current Venezuelan territory by the Atlantic world, its control by Europeans, the submission of aboriginal people, and the implantation of a new society under the principles of Christendom. In the case of Venezuela, this process started early. Soon after Christopher Columbus reached the continental mass of America for the first time in 1498, the first rush to riches took place with the “pearl fever” in Cubagua, the first political territorial unity was created (Gobernación of Coquibacoa, 1502), the first European city in South America was founded (Cumaná, named as *La Primogénita*, “The Firstborn,” in 1520), and the first mission in America was established (in 1513, also in Cumaná), all in Venezuelan territory. Venezuela was also where the El Dorado myth first appeared. For this reason, many of the main protagonists in the history of the conquest of America, such as Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci, Bartolomé de Las Casas, Lope de Aguirre, and Walter Raleigh, are characters in the history of Venezuela.

Although the process of conquest is often considered a feature of the 16th century, by the time Barcelona, the last of the large cities established during the colonial stage, was founded in 1638, the Spaniards only controlled the northern part of the country. Considering that the Llanos and Guayana were not occupied until the 17th century, full geographical knowledge was not achieved until the 20th century (Gran Sabana, for instance, was not known until the 1930s), the last aboriginal group submitted to the state in 1961 (Bari), and there are still peoples in Amazonas like the Yanomami who maintain their ancestral way of life, it could be said that conquest took 500 years to complete. Nevertheless, the century and a half from Columbus’s arrival to the foundation of Barcelona is when the bases of colonial society were laid.

The conquest can be divided into three large stages: settlement along the coast (1498–1528); penetration of the interior looking for gold (1528–1545); and the implantation of colonial society with the foundation of cities, an agricultural-export-based economy, and the arrival of the African slave population (1546–1638).

The first stage is the moment when America joined the European expansion in the Atlantic. During his third voyage, Columbus arrived at the Paria Peninsula, in eastern Venezuela, on 3 August 1498. Previously, in July he

had seen the island of Trinidad (which was part of Venezuela from 1777 to 1797). On 5 August, the first disembarkation of Europeans in Venezuela took place in Macuro. Surprised by the beauty of the landscape, Columbus named the place *Tierra de Gracia* (Graceland) and believed he had found Paradise. Nevertheless, he continued looking for a route to India, but he noticed the pearls that the aborigines had and named Margarita (“pearl” in Latin), the island that still bears this name.

The pearl wealth attracted many merchants. They named the profitable business of acquiring them *rescate* (rescue), in which they traded pearls for mirrors and rattles that were highly valued by the aborigines, able traders as well. Soon, the Europeans started to capture aborigines to enslave and trade them. One of them, Alonso de Ojeda, sailed along the whole coast of current Venezuela in 1499. He was joined by a factor of the Medici house in Spain, Amerigo Vespucci, looking for business opportunities, who when noticing the settlements of *palafitos* in the current Gulf of Venezuela invented the name of the country, which means “Little Venice” (“Venezziola” in Italian). For his part, Ojeda obtained from the Spanish Crown the first Spanish *gobernación* in South America, in current Guajira Peninsula, named Gobernación of Coquibacoa (1502). Nevertheless, the pearl deposits at the island of Cubagua, in eastern Venezuela, were the ones that led to the first European permanent settlement, Nueva Cádiz, founded around 1500. The Crown gave Nueva Cádiz the rank of city in 1528, and it became the second most important one in the Antilles, after Santo Domingo. For the pearl exploitation, the Spanish enslaved aborigines in large numbers, and the substantial mortality experienced by the slaves generated scandal in Spain. By the 1540s, they had exploited most of the pearls on the island. An earthquake in 1541 and a hurricane in 1543 razed the city.

Yet activity in Cubagua had two relevant consequences: The religious friars of Santo Domingo started to denounce the enslavement of aborigines, leading to the foundation of the first missions on the continental coast in front of Cubagua, in Cumaná (1513). One of its key sponsors was Fray Bartolomé de Las Casas, who advocated for the pacific christening of aborigines. On the other hand, the Cubagua merchants, looking for water, settled in this area as well. When the missions failed, the armed conquest started, leading to the foundation of the city of Cumaná. As well, in 1525, the province of Margarita was established on the neighboring island to Cubagua. It was given to Marcelo Villalobos, but his early passing away led to its being inherited by his widow, Isabel Manrique de Villalobos, probably the first governess of the Hispanic period. In parallel, another merchant, from Santo Domingo, Juan de Ampíes, received from the Crown the right to settle and trade in the west of current Venezuela and the neighboring islands of Aruba and Curaçao.

In exchange, he had the task of repatriating illegally enslaved aborigines and taking them back to the Antilles. With this project, he gained the support of the *cacique* Manaure, with whom Ampies founded the city of Coro in 1527.

In 1528, the second stage of the conquest started, when Europeans initiated the penetration of the interior looking for gold. This was when the myth of El Dorado (or Eldorado) appeared, a transposition of the experience of Hernán Cortés in México, which led Europeans to search for a wealthy gold city close to the imagined Lake Parima. In fact, not a few of the conquerors who came to Venezuela arrived from Mexico, such as Diego de Ordaz, who in 1529 was the first to obtain the king's right to conquer El Dorado. When news of the Inca Empire and its gold spread, the conviction that a city with such characteristics grew. Three major routes were followed to reach El Dorado. The first departed from Coro, in the northwest of Venezuela. In 1528, that city became the capital of a new *gobernación* created by Emperor Charles V, the first political-territorial unit to bear the name *Venezuela*, even though it only covered the current country's western and central areas. The province was given as a concession to the Welsers, a powerful South German house of merchant-bankers who had close ties to the Spanish Crown and the emperor. For this reason, the first governor of Venezuela, Ambrosius Ehinger (in Spanish, Ambrosio Alfínger), was German. Even the Germans translated the name of the province into their language, calling it Klein-Venedig (Little Venice). Nevertheless, the sovereignty continued to be Spanish, and the Welsers only had the right to populate the area, exploit the wealth of the territory, and import slaves. The governors appointed by the Welsers made several expeditions that led them to penetrate into current Colombian territory. The second governor, Nikolaus Federmann (in Spanish, Nicolás Federman), arrived to the plains of Bogotá, where he took part in the foundation of the city with Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada and Sebastián Belalcázar. When in 1546 the government of the Welsers ended amid accusations by the Spanish colonists, no one had been able to find El Dorado, but the territory was better known and Maracaibo had already been established by Alfínger (1529).

In 1561 an expedition that departed from Peru looking for El Dorado rebelled against its leader and finally against the king of Spain. The expedition had begun in the Marañón River and then followed the Orinoco to arrive in the Atlantic Ocean. From there, they sailed to Margarita Island. The leader of the rebellion was Lope de Aguirre (known as the Tyrant), and it caused commotion in the province of Venezuela. After attacking and sacking many towns and executing royal authorities, Aguirre was defeated and executed in El Tocuyo, in western Venezuela. In this way the Orinoco enters into the history of the El Dorado search. In fact, Antonio de Berrío, married to a descendant of Jiménez de Quesada, founder of Bogotá, and heir of his fortune, invested

his money in an expedition to the Orinoquia looking for the city, following the route of Diego de Ordaz on the Orinoco River (1583–1597). When he passed away, he had not achieved his objective, but he opened for the Europeans one of the main river routes in South America. A year before dying, Berrio was captured by Walter Raleigh, an English corsair who raided Spanish ships and settlements across the Caribbean. Raleigh represents the third large enterprise aimed at finding El Dorado. One of his lieutenants, Amyas Preston, sacked Caracas in 1595. In these adventures, he learned about the existence of El Dorado. In 1617, Raleigh started a second expedition to the Orinoco, destroying the city of Santo Tomé de Guayana and taking possession of the territory. But since peace with Spain had already been reached, English authorities used the attack to incarcerate Raleigh and execute him in 1618.

The third stage of the conquest started in the 1540s, when the Spanish founded permanent settlements on the coast and in the Andean region of Venezuela and started a plantation economy. Although some continued looking for El Dorado in the Orinoquia, in the rest of the country the conquerors were convinced of the uselessness of this effort. In 1545, an authority was appointed by the Real Audiencia de Santo Domingo to investigate the Welser government and leave Coro to found the city of El Tocuyo in a fertile valley. From El Tocuyo, expeditions were assembled that led to the foundations of Barquisimeto (1552), Valencia (1555), Trujillo (1557), and Caracas (1567). In all these cases, the conquistadores, after the submission of aborigines, divided among themselves large areas of land on which they established *haciendas* (ranches) and assigned groups of aborigines to work in *encomiendas* (a system in which the aborigines had to work as servants of the *encomendero* for some weeks or months).

The search for gold mines was an incentive, as the long process of the foundation of Caracas shows, delayed for 30 years by the stubborn resistance of Caribbean tribes. Aboriginal *caciques* such as Guaicaipuro, Tamanaco, and Paramaconi took part in the long struggle. In order to work in the mines and later in the plantations, the conquerors started to import large amounts of slaves. In 1553, a *cimarrón* kingdom was organized in the mines of Buria, in the central part of western Venezuela, led by a former African slave from Puerto Rico known as Negro Miguel or King Miguel. He was defeated and executed, but he remains an admired hero.

In the beginning of the 17th century, most of the coast and the Andean region was controlled by the Spanish, with consolidated cities, large *haciendas*, and aborigines allocated in *encomiendas*. In the territory east of Caracas, the resistance of the Caribes continued, especially against coastal raids by the Dutch Western Indies Company, which had decided to settle in the territory. This led to the last conquest enterprise and ended in the foundation of

Barcelona in 1638. The struggle against the Dutch and their alliance in the Caribbean continued for several years.

THE COLONY

The period of 300 years in which Spain administered most of the South American continent and the Caribbean, known as *la Colonia*, constitutes the time when the bases of modern Hispanic American nations were laid. During these three centuries, four processes of utmost historical relevance developed. The first was the implantation of a new society based in the guidelines of Christendom, during which *mestizaje*, or ethnic mixing, occurred. Second came the configuration of the new ethnic identities, in particular *criollos* (literally translated as “creoles,” descendants of Europeans), which became the bases of existing Hispanic American nationalities. Third was the creation of political-territorial entities that gave rise to the Hispanic American states of today. Finally came the process of integration of Hispanic American territory into both the Atlantic world and the capitalist system.

The territory of current Venezuela was divided into autonomous provinces, which were dependent on Santo Domingo (in the current Dominican Republic) or Santafé de Bogotá (in current Colombia), until in 1717 they joined the Viceroyalty of Nueva Granada and, in 1777, became a new entity, the General Captaincy of Venezuela, with Caracas as capital. These provinces, created in the 16th and 17th centuries (Maracaibo, Caracas, Guayana, Nueva Andalucía, Margarita, and Trinidad), could be seen, in practical terms, as a frontier territory for the Spanish Empire. To the south, there were plains and rainforests not controlled by Europeans, and to the north the Caribbean Sea, which was disputed among Spain, the Netherlands, England, and France. This effort to control territory by Spain was a process that greatly defined Venezuelan colonial history and continued even through the independent country until the 20th century. The effort was focused on two fronts: toward the interior to pacify aboriginal tribes resisting European domination, and in the maritime arena against the other European powers. In the former, it was done through religious missions, and in the latter through military and political circumscriptions to control the coast. In respect of religious missions, along with Paraguay and California, Venezuela was a primary mission field in Spanish America, with about 300 settlements founded across the territory by Franciscan, Capuchin, Dominican, and Jesuit missionaries. In 1728, a third model started with the creation of a privileged company by the Spanish Crown, as had already been successfully done by the Netherlands, England, and France, the Real Compañía de Caracas (named Compañía Guipuzcoana

by locals). The company was part of the Borbonic Reforms, and it was tasked with monopolizing the cocoa trade in the center of current Venezuelan territory, the base of the local economy. The company fought against smuggling, as most of the production was sold to Dutch traders and in lesser degree to French and English ones. Even though it generated an increase in exports, it brought large discontent among the landowners, whose profits were diminished. This led to rebellions in the 1730s and 1740s. In the 1750s, the Real Compañía de Barcelona e Indias was created, which operated in the eastern part of the territory (Nueva Andalucía and Margarita). Nevertheless, the control of the Guipuzcoana extended to the neighboring provinces, which started to be subordinated to Caracas. In fact, in 1776, the Intendencia de Caracas was created to supervise the provinces of Maracaibo, Guayana, Nueva Andalucía, Trinidad, and Margarita, all part of the Viceroyalty of Nueva Granada. In 1777, they were joined into the General Captaincy of Venezuela. In 1778, the bishopric of Mérida was created, freeing itself from the ecclesiastical authority of Bogotá. In 1786, the Real Audiencia de Caracas was created, which centralized from a judiciary perspective the provinces dependent on Bogotá and Santo Domingo. In 1790, the bishopric of Guayana was created, and in 1803 the whole country was ecclesiastically united under the archbishopric of Caracas. In this way, the political-territorial unity of the current Republic of Venezuela was already constituted by the start of the 19th century. Only the island of Trinidad, occupied by the English in 1797 during the War of the First Coalition, did not become part of the republic when it became independent in 1811.

The close ties of Venezuela with the Caribbean and the political and economic dynamics of the Atlantic helped to chisel a society with common characteristics to the plantation economies of the region. Expansion of cocoa cultivation brought massive amounts of African slaves from the 1620s. The social consequences of this process were quite important. Not only were there conflicts with rebel slaves (*cimarrones*), who founded many settlements along the coast, some still existing, but an intense interbreeding took place among African slaves and aboriginal people, a particular feature of Venezuela in contrast with other locations in the Caribbean. By the early 19th century, about 45 percent of Venezuelans were *pardos* (mestizos with African blood), 10 percent were African slaves, and 20 percent were white, yet only a small group were *criollos*. The latter, called in Venezuela *mantuanos*, were the land and slave owners, and some had obtained titles of nobility. They were the economic power behind the cocoa, sugarcane, tobacco, and indigo plantations, as well as coffee, a crop that arrived to Venezuela in the 18th century and eventually would constitute the base of the economy in independent Venezuela.

Colonial society had a high degree of stratification based on skin color—a caste system, as it was known then. Notwithstanding, in the middle of the 18th century, a process of social ascent among colored people started as they looked to obtain positions and privileges restricted to whites. The *Real Cédula de Gracias al Sacar* (*Royal Decree of Favor of Legal Exemption by Payment*) in 1795 is the most famous case. It enabled *pardos* to have access to the privileges of a white after paying a specified sum. This generated major resistance among the latter, who were able to repeal it, even though it increased tensions and eventually led to a racial war. In parallel, in the *llanos* (plains) and Guayana, a frontier society appeared combining aboriginal people controlled by the missionaries, aborigines who remained free, and a new ethnic group, the *llaneros*. These were a seminomadic group, descendants of *cimarrones* and aborigines, who worked as herders on the *hatos* (cattle-raising ranches). They played an instrumental role in the Independence War.

INDEPENDENCE

Three of the most important figures of the Hispanic American independence process were born in Caracas: Francisco de Miranda (1750–1816), Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), and Andrés Bello (1781–1865). This provides a clear indication of the central role of Venezuela played during this process. In 1811, Venezuela was the first country in Hispanic America to be formed as an independent republic and to enact a liberal constitution. In 1819, the Congress of Venezuela proclaimed the Republic of Colombia (named Gran Colombia by the historiography to differentiate it from the existing republic of the same name). As well, Venezuelan army officers were appointed the first presidents of Ecuador and Bolivia. Finally, Simón Bolívar was the most important revolution leader in South America, holding the positions of president of Gran Colombia (which included the current territories of Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, and Panama) and dictator of Peru.

The independence revolution of Venezuela was mostly a result of its close ties with the Atlantic and Caribbean worlds. On one hand, there were the constant social and racial tensions of the Caribbean, which arose with more strength in Venezuela due to the existence of a growing middle sector of colored people with economic resources and property. On the other hand, the impact of the Atlantic revolutions reached Venezuela in a faster and stronger manner than in other territories of Spanish America. In this sense, the Haitian Revolution had an immediate impact in Venezuela. French-speaking émigrés fled Haiti and settled in Venezuela, and after the Peace of Basel, they also came from the Spanish side of Hispaniola Island (now the Dominican Re-

public). Along with this, Venezuelan militias were sent to Santo Domingo to defend it. But more relevant than that, for the colored groups, the Haiti experience made a political order led by them seem like a real possibility. In 1795, a *zambo* merchant (a descendant of black and aboriginal people) working in the Antilles who had witnessed these events, José Leonardo Chirinos, led a rebellion of slaves, aborigines, and free people in the Sierra of Coro in western Venezuela. His project was to abolish slavery and transfer political power to the colored groups. Even though his rebellion was swiftly quelled and he was brutally executed, the two basic aspects of his revolt had great relevance for the rest of the independence process: racial tensions and Caribbean influence.

In 1797 in La Guaira, a seaport close to Caracas, a conspiracy with large ramifications was revealed, inspired by the French Revolution and led by landowner Jose Maria España, military officer Manuel Gual, and Spanish teacher Juan Bautista Picornell. The latter had participated in the San Blas conspiracy (1795), aimed at establishing a revolutionary government in Madrid. He was captured and sent to the Venezuelan seaport, where he made contact with Gual and España (conventionally, this event is known as the Gual and España Conspiracy). When their conspiracy was revealed, the leaders fled into exile. They had designed a plan of democratic government that among other things proclaimed the abolition of slavery and the institution of free commerce, and even had a flag, and Picornell had translated the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen.

Nevertheless, the most intense and transatlantic life was that of Francisco de Miranda. As a young officer, he was sent to fight alongside the rebels in the American Revolution. This experience, along with issues with Spanish authorities and the influence of Enlightenment authors, led him to aim toward the freedom of Hispanic America. During the last quarter of the 18th century, he traveled across Europe looking for government support for his project. Finally, Miranda went to France, where the revolution had started, and rose through the army ranks to become marshal, being victorious in several engagements. Despite this, he was unable to find support and left for England, a country he had already visited and whose government had shown interest in his knowledge of Hispanic America, but not for his project itself. Miranda set up a wide network of conspirators across America but lacked government resources. This led him to go to the United States to organize an expedition by himself. In 1806, he left New York with three vessels and a small group of men. The expedition was intercepted by Spanish ships, and Miranda got away with only one ship, which allowed him to flee to Trinidad. In the same year, he made a second attempt, disembarking in Coro in western Venezuela and taking a city. Yet without any support from the population, he returned to England. Due to the influence his ideas had on other Hispanic American

patriots such as Bolívar, Bello, and Bernardo O'Higgins, as well as the fact that he designed the current flags of Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador and coined the name *Colombia*, Miranda is known as *El Precursor*.

But the independence process had to wait, as in the rest of Hispanic America, until the 1808 crisis in Spain, when the state collapsed in the face of the Napoleonic invasion of the Iberian Peninsula. As in other Hispanic American capitals, on 19 April 1810, the captain general, the highest colonial authority, was removed from his position in Caracas along with other authorities and replaced by a junta (collegiate government) formed by members of the creole aristocracy. Even though officially it governed in the name of King Ferdinand (whose throne had been taken by Napoleon's brother Joseph), soon the junta showed its intention to act with autonomy. Among its actions were sending diplomats and enacting reforms such as economic freedom, abolishing the slave trade (but not slavery), and a call for elections to appoint a constituent congress. The start of a civil war with the provinces that did not join the junta led to more radical actions. In December 1810, Miranda returned to Venezuela. In March 1811, the congress met, and on 5 July 1811, the Independence Act was signed, making Venezuela the first Spanish colonial possession to become independent.

In the bloody decade following, war defined Venezuelan life. From 1812 to 1814, control of Venezuela passed from patriots to royalists, as the factions in conflict are known. Conventionally, this stage is divided into the First Republic (1811–1812) and Second Republic (1813–1814). Nevertheless, real authority was not in institutions but in military leaders. Miranda became dictator but was detained and handed over to royalists in 1812, dying in prison in 1816, while the royalist Domingo Monteverde, revolutionary Santiago Mariño, and above all Simón Bolívar, from the patriot faction, became the succeeding rulers of the country. Bolívar, exiled in Nueva Granada, started in 1813 an expedition with the support of the patriot government of the neighboring country and swiftly reconquered the center of Venezuela in what is known as the *Campaña Admirable* (Admirable Campaign). He was given the title of Liberator. Bolívar tried to reorganize the republic, but he had to face a new phase of the war, named by him the *Guerra de Colores* (War of Colors), which was a racial war. The *llaneros* (mixed-race horsemen from the plains with exceptional fighting abilities with the lance) rebelled against the republic under the command of a Spanish merchant, José Tomás Boves, and assembled an irregular army under the promise of annihilating white people and looting their properties. This was the beginning of a large popular rebellion that generated massive looting, slaughter, and internal migration. In this context, Bolívar proclaimed in June 1813 the *Guerra a Muerte* (War to Death) against Spanish royalists, trying to make of the racial war an international

conflict of Venezuelans against the foreigners. By the second half of 1814, Boves was the ruler of Venezuela and, even though acting in the name of the king, governed with full autonomy. His government was short lived as he died in battle in December of that year.

In 1815, after the defeat of Napoleon and reinstatement of King Fernando VII in Spain, a large military expedition was assembled under the command of Pablo Morillo, aiming to retake Venezuela and Nueva Granada. That year, while in exile in the British colony of Jamaica, Bolívar wrote one of the fundamental documents of Latin American thought, the so-called Jamaica Letter. A year later, with the support of the Haitian government of Alexandre Petion, he organized an invasion of Venezuela, known as the Expedición de Los Cayos. Despite not achieving its initial objectives, the former Boves irregular army, now dispersed patriot guerrillas roaming the *llanos*, recovered strength. Two military leaders became relevant: José Antonio Páez, who reunited the Boves army of *llaneros* under his command; and Manuel Carlos Piar, who became the leader of the *pardos*. In 1817, Piar obtained two victories in eastern Venezuela in the Battles of El Juncal and San Felix, which gave the patriots control of the Orinoco River and the province of Guayana, wealthy in badly needed resources such as cattle and horses. This is considered a turning point for the patriots in the independence war. There the patriots regrouped, including Bolívar, who was appointed supreme chief of the republic, but Piar decided to rebel against Bolívar's authority, under the flag of racial inequalities. His proposal of a government of colored people was swiftly aborted, with his detention and execution ordered by Bolívar. In compensation, Bolívar offers valuable incentives to the colored troops: freedom of slaves who joined the patriot cause, which was decreed in 1816, was increased to a promise of full abolition, the possibility of army rank promotion for colored officers, the right to vote for all the military force, and land ownership as payment of salary debts. These measures allowed Bolívar to bring colored forces into the patriot army.

In the capital of Guayana, Angostura (now Ciudad Bolívar), a new congress met in 1819, to which were incorporated representatives of Nueva Granada. There the reunion of Venezuela and Nueva Granada was decreed, re-creating the old viceroyalty in a new republic named Colombia, conventionally known as Gran Colombia. This is considered the start of the Third Republic. From Angostura, Bolívar began a campaign through the plains in western Venezuela, across the Andean Mountains, to capture Bogotá, the old capital of the viceroyalty. The so-called Paso de los Andes (1819), a risky and difficult movement, paid off, as he surprised royalist forces, and in the Battle of Boyacá (1819), Bolívar was able to take Bogotá and declared it the capital of Gran Colombia. Since that moment, the new republic started to have more

international recognition and support. The War to Death ended in Venezuela in 1820 with an armistice signed by Bolívar and Morillo, which shortly thereafter was broken. In the following years, Bolívar and his generals led a succession of military successes. The province of Caracas was captured by the defeat of royalists in the Battle of Carabobo (1821), the north of Nueva Granada with the Battle of Cartagena (1821), the south with the Battle of Bomboná (1822), Quito (Ecuador) with the Battle of Pichincha (1822), and finally the independence of Peru was consolidated with the Battle of Ayacucho (1824). All of South America had become independent of Spain. In Venezuela, the independence war ended a few months before, with the naval Battle of Maracaibo, which allowed the capture of the last stronghold of royalists in western Venezuela.

Gran Colombia and its President Bolívar, the main ideologist and strategist in both the political and military arenas, became the most powerful state, and him the most powerful man, of South America by 1826. By then, the provinces of Alto Perú declared independence and assumed the name of the Republic of Bolívar (now Bolivia). That year, the Congress of Panama met, in which Bolívar desired to organize a large Hispanic American alliance. Nevertheless, Gran Colombia had many problems. Venezuelans resented losing their position as an independent nation and rebelled against Gran Colombia in 1826 in a movement known as La Cóiata, led by Páez, who was the president of the department of Venezuela. Even though the objective was not achieved, in 1830, amid a deep political crisis, Venezuela decided to separate from Gran Colombia, starting the life of the Republic of Venezuela as it exists today.

THE REPUBLIC

Venezuela has had almost 200 years of republican life, a long effort of the leading sectors of its society to create a nation-state—that is, a state in the modern sense of the word, an institutional framework that concentrates power over the whole of society, a collective living as a national community, and the closest feasible articulation of capitalism. The latter enabled the possibility of a transformation of the country, paving the way toward what in the 19th century was denominated *progress* and since the mid-20th century *development*, which we can encompass as *modernity*.

In this sense, the project that Venezuelan elites had in mind was not different from that of the rest of the Hispanic American republics that emerged from the independence process, nor in general from the efforts of other nations, with mixed success, since the 19th century. Germany and Italy desired

something similar in the 1860s and 1870s, as China did in the early 20th century and other African and Asiatic countries did after the decolonization process in the mid-20th century. The main difference is that American countries pioneered the creation of nation-states outside Europe, for which the United States was a key reference, and whose replication was complex. Similar to the rest of Hispanic America and many countries of Asia and Africa, the republican life of Venezuela has been the effort to achieve modernity while coping with major difficulties.

Naturally, it is a process that has had several stages. In each one, despite keeping the essence of the project, there have been changes according to the ideas and economic possibilities of the times. As well, even though the goal of progress and development has been elusive, there have been significant achievements. In the second decade of the 21st century, it can be affirmed that Venezuela is a nation-state and that its problems have entered a new phase: the crisis of the state due to the collapse of its economic model and difficulties in providing justice and other key attributes of the state in an efficient way.

The first stage encompasses roughly the first hundred years of republican life, from 1830 to 1936. The aim, which historian Germán Carrera Damas called the *national project*, was to create a liberal state, like those that had started to be built in Europe, with a capitalist economy. Beginning in 1936, that project was reformulated, and even though it kept some of the guidelines of the former, it became what in historiography has been called the *democratic project*, the second stage ranging from 1936 to 1999. This project can be defined as a democratic state that at the same time enabled economic and social development while guaranteeing a system of liberties. In the 1980s, a stage of economic and political crisis started that closed with the arrival to power of Hugo Chávez in 1999 with the promise of a refoundation of the state or, even more, the creation of a new one. In 2007, socialism was proclaimed, which started the third stage, a march toward a new model of society and freedom, whose development is still under way, making it difficult to provide an account of it. It is relevant to mention that these three stages based in the type of state and society aimed at are generalizations, and the historical process that took place was more dynamic and complex. On the other hand, these periods seem to ignore what probably has been the most important phenomenon of republican life in Venezuela (and according to Arturo Uslar Pietri the second most important after the European conquest): the oil-based economy that started in the 1920s. Both in the construction of the state after the 1930s and in its crisis half a century later, oil has played the role of protagonist.

Even though it is a generalization to treat the first hundred years of republican life as a single block, there are elements that unify the period.

The most important, in addition to the establishment of the liberal project (another generalization), is the fact that the economy continued to be based on agriculture. The founders of the republic in 1830 understood that entry into global markets could not lie much further than in the foundations of the colonial economy. A lack of industries, population, and capital to develop an industrialized economy made it impossible to establish anything else in Venezuela. In essence, their idea was to maintain the model of exporting tropical products and cattle but retain most of the control of business. Along with this, they expected that liberalizing the economy through foreign and local investment would be encouraged, which in a short time would lead Venezuela to *progress*, understood as roads, industries, schools, and modern plantations. In order to achieve this, they put in place important liberal reforms. The Constitution of 1830 not only consecrated the division of powers, the vote for property owners, and individual and economic freedom; it eliminated the military and ecclesiastic *fueros*, an institution in traditional Spanish legislation that guaranteed special privileges to certain members of society. In 1834, the laws of Freedom of Religion and *Libertad de contratos* (freedom to enter into business contracts) deregulated interest rates and contractual conditions. During more than a decade, those measures allowed modest economic growth, coupled with peace and stability, which were uncommon in the neighboring nations of the time. In economic terms, two relevant developments took place: the substitution of cocoa for coffee as the main export crop, and the arrival of foreign merchants, especially from England and northern Germany, setting up business operations in the main Venezuelan ports.

Despite this relative success, conditions in Venezuela were quite challenging. The large destruction left by war remained, and social and racial turmoil continued, along with discontent across some sectors with the reforms. In addition, the state lacked the resources to maintain a proper army. This led to the emergence of the caudillo, a warlord ensuring order based in his resources, prestige, and network. These were not outlaws; in fact, some of them combined their personal power with public positions, while others just made pacts or exerted influence in the state. As warlords, they had a private army that generally responded to their orders. The first important Venezuelan caudillo was the hero of Independence and leader of the secession from Gran Colombia, José Antonio Páez (1790–1873). Even though he was president in the constitutional periods 1830–1835 and 1839–1843, Páez was key to ensuring order when it was endangered by armed revolutions in 1835 and 1846, even though no longer in power. This does not imply, however, that he ceased in his effort to promote the establishment of a liberal order.

In 1840, the elite landowners and merchants who governed the country divided, and the first opposition party appeared, the Liberal Party, led by

Antonio Leocadio Guzmán (1801–1884). The Liberals gave the name Partido Conservador (Conservative Party) to their opponents, who did not denominate themselves in this way. In fact, in Venezuela, differing from other Hispanic American countries, there were no truly doctrinaire conservatives outside a few priests and thinkers. The context of the appearance of Liberal Party was a decline in coffee prices that led to the bankruptcy of many farmers. As a consequence, the Liberal proposal was democratic (right for majorities) and interventionist (participation of the state in the economy). In 1848, the Liberals reached power through a new caudillo, also from the Independence War, General José Tadeo Monagas, who displaced Páez. In the following 10 years, power was in the hands of the Monagas family and the Liberals. During this period, abolition of the death penalty for political crimes (1849) and slavery (1854) took place. But internal political divisions, the authoritarian ways of Monagas, and a new economic crisis led the country to a long period of anarchy from 1858 to 1870. During these 12 years, four civil wars took place, and the republic was on the brink of disappearance. There was an important movement to reunify with Colombia, but in the end Venezuela remained independent. In 1861, Páez saw his last political participation when he assumed the dictatorship during a coup d'état and eliminated all republican powers, which in practice was the derogation of the republic. It was an attempt to contain anarchy that ended in failure.

The most important of these civil wars was the Guerra Federal (1859–1864), which had an important connotation of social war, in which the social and racial tensions that ravaged the country during Independence reappeared. The leader of the movement was Ezequiel Zamora (1817–1860), and his proclamations of social equality mobilized farmworkers behind the Liberal Party. These Liberals took power and established a democratic and federal regime, instituted a universal vote for men, reorganized the republic as a federation named Estados Unidos de Venezuela, and abolished the death penalty in the Constitution of 1864. Note that, from the 1860s to the 1910s, the Liberal Party was directly or indirectly in power, so that they played quite an important role in Venezuelan nation building. In 1870, one of the most important Liberal generals of the Guerra Federal, Antonio Guzmán Blanco (1829–1899), the son of the party founder Antonio Leocadio Guzmán, took power in a civil war.

With Guzmán Blanco starts a long period of 65 years in which Venezuela was ruled by dictators. Monagas and Páez were powerful caudillos, but they never had an absolute power like Guzmán Blanco and his successors. In this epoch known as *guzmancismo* (1870–1888), Guzmán made great efforts to modernize Venezuela. He stimulated the arts and education; proclaimed free and obligatory public instruction in 1870; made liberal reforms such as

the Civil Code of 1870; secularized life in the country, which led to major conflicts with the Catholic Church; developed a vast policy of public works; created the national symbols; and encouraged foreign investment. In these times, an important bourgeoisie formed in the major cities of Venezuela. Nevertheless, this took place under a highly authoritarian and personalist government in which a large cult of personality of Guzmán existed, along with important cases of corruption. High prices for coffee and an effective alliance with several caudillos, which in essence divided the country among themselves, meant that until 1888 Venezuela experienced stability and important economic growth, only briefly interrupted by rebellions that were promptly quelled. Therefore, Venezuela was not a state in the fullest sense of the term, but an important effort was made to achieve it.

In 1888, when Guzmán Blanco retired from power, other caudillos clamored to take his place. Therefore, from 1892 to 1903, the country experienced a decade of crisis comparable to that of 1858–1870. There were four civil wars, a bankruptcy of the state due to a combination of high external debt and the fall of coffee prices, a loss of 150,000 square kilometers of Essequibo to the British Empire in 1899, and a blockade and naval bombardment of the Venezuelan coast by Great Britain and Germany in 1902 to fulfill financial obligations. This blockade ceased due to the intervention of U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt, which created the famous Roosevelt Corollary. Of all these wars, there are two especially relevant: the *Revolución Liberal Restauradora* (1899) and the *Revolución Libertadora* (1901–1903). The former brought to power a Liberal caudillo from the Andean region, Cipriano Castro (1858–1924), and initiated a long period known as the *Hegemonía Andina* (1899–1945), in which Venezuela was ruled by caudillos and military officers from Táchira State, neighboring Colombia. The latter was a large alliance of caudillos, jointly with Caracas bourgeoisie and foreign companies, opposed to some aspects of Castro's nationalism. It was a large and properly armed movement and was defeated by government troops whose main leader was Castro's lieutenant, an Andean landowner and merchant named Juan Vicente Gómez (1857–1935), who became an admired figure due to his success in the battlefield.

In 1908, Gómez ousted Castro with a coup d'état. At the helm of a dictatorship that featured harsh repression of any dissidence, Gómez held power until his death in 1935. Even though tortures, imprisonment, and corruption were widespread during his government, Gómez ended civil war, modernized the army, connected the country with roads, cleaned the accounts of the state and ordered its administration, allowed a favorable climate to business, and consolidated the nation-state. As well, the modern legal codes were written and enacted. It was still a modest state bureaucratic structure, and there was

no real interest in enhancing the social conditions of those living in poverty. Illiteracy and pandemics such as yellow fever held society in check. Nevertheless, one of the most important transformations of Venezuelan history started to develop: the dawn of the large-scale oil industry.

Venezuela has the largest oil reserves in the world, some 270 billion barrels. In the 1860s and 1870s, the first oil operations started to take place. Nevertheless, the start of the modern oil industry is conventionally held to be in 1914, when the first commercial oil well, Zumaque 1, started operations in Zulia State through a subsidiary of Royal Dutch Shell. Industry developed rapidly. In the 1920s, the value of oil exports surpassed those from agriculture, and Venezuela became the largest oil exporter and a magnet of investments by the most important oil companies in the world. This radically changed the life of Venezuelan society. Oil meant more money for Gómez and his ruling elite, along with substantial support from the British and U.S. governments, which controlled the industry, but it also brought badly needed resources to Venezuela.

However, in 1928 there was a transcendent episode: a group of students from Universidad Central de Venezuela in Caracas led protests against the Gómez dictatorship. These were followed by a civic strike and isolated armed rebellions. Even though the dictatorship was able to quell these revolts, the students, known as *Generación del 28*, became with time the leaders of Venezuela in the second half of the 20th century. Many were imprisoned, and others had to flee to exile, allowing them to get closer contact with the ideas of the Mexican and Russian Revolutions. Some became communists, but most of them combined the revolutionary ideas of the left with the old democratic and liberal tradition, which even though muted during the dictatorships had not disappeared. This allowed the formation of the democratic project. Basically, the idea was to democratize the nation-state, opening opportunities to social mobility for the whole society amid a framework of liberties, consolidating sovereignty against imperialism, instituting agrarian reforms among other social and economic changes, and enabling industrial development. The most important of the leaders behind the project was Rómulo Betancourt (1908–1981), who wrote the *Barranquilla Plan* (1931), in which he proposed these guidelines.

When Gómez passed away in 1935, the country that had changed through oil and long peace found its desire for change spoken by the young leaders of *Generación del 28*, who were freed from jail or returned from exile. In this way, in the following half century, Venezuela democratized systematically in a climate of prosperity never seen, with major opportunities to climb the social ladder. The power of Gómez was inherited by the army. In fact, the next two presidents, Generals Eleazar López Contreras and Isaías Medina

Angarita, were the heads of the army. Nevertheless, they gradually promoted democratization and the start of a set of social policies in health, education, and industrialization. Medina also enacted a transformational legislation, the Oil Law Reform of 1943, which paved the way to an equal share of profit for the state and oil companies (a 50–50 arrangement) and made the Venezuelan state the wealthiest player in the economy. This can be considered the start of “rentier capitalism,” the economic model that the country has had ever since, based in a powerful and wealthy state and a private sector dependent on protectionism and subsidies. Despite all that, in October 1945, a military coup by a group of discontented young officers, allied with the party Acción Democrática, founded by Rómulo Betancourt in 1941, tried to accelerate this democratization in the so-called October Revolution. During this period, also known as the Trienio (1945–1948), the universal vote for all Venezuelans was granted, both men and women, as well as unionization, an increase in the share of profits for the state in the oil industry, and other reforms. In the Constituent National Assembly of 1946–1947, 12 female deputies were elected. Betancourt led the junta in 1945, and in the elections of 1947, famed novelist Rómulo Gallegos of Acción Democrática was elected the first president by universal vote.

Amid the cold war, military officers aborted the democratic attempt of Acción Democrática in 1948 and held power for almost 10 years, until January 1958, yet they did not abandon the main guidelines of the democratic project. The Dictadura Militar, led by a military junta and later by General Marcos Pérez Jiménez as president, featured a policy of public infrastructure and incentives to industrialization, based in the oil windfall of the 1950s. In the collective memory of society, it is remembered as a period of order and prosperity, despite the heavy repression of opposition. Nevertheless, the regime was unable to make itself popular among Venezuelans, who were convinced of the democratic project.

An all-out rebellion of society, which the armed forces eventually joined, ousted Pérez Jiménez in January 1958, opening the door for a democratic regime that held for 40 years. This was the longest period of institutional stability, peace, and freedom in the republican history of Venezuela. Rómulo Betancourt was elected president in 1958, and eight elections were held consecutively. Some specialists have called the period the República Civil since for the first time all elected presidents throughout the four decades were civilians. After the defeat of communist guerrillas, supported in finance, weaponry, and manpower by Fidel Castro and his Cuban regime (1962–1968), stability seemed to have consolidated permanently. It was also one of the periods in which, at least until the 1970s, prosperity was widely experienced and major opportunities for social ascent appeared. Illiteracy decreased from

60 percent to 10 percent; life expectancy almost doubled, as the pandemic diseases affecting the country subsided. Also, a vast road network integrated the territory, the first integrated electrical system in Latin America was built, and the industrial sector was substantially enlarged. An aggressive urbanization process took place, from a rural population of 60 percent in 1958 to 15 percent in 1990. The middle class grew and became 30 percent of society, with high purchasing power as currency rates remained stable while interest rates and inflation were low. In 1975, President Carlos Andrés Pérez nationalized the iron industry, and the oil industry followed in 1976. The shocks in oil prices that started in 1973 enabled an epoch named *Gran Venezuela* (1973–1983) in which rentier capitalism reached its climax in an economic bonanza, an ambitious program of state investment in strategic industry sectors, but widespread high spending and an expansion of corruption, which until then was reasonably controlled by the democratic administrations. This attracted massive amounts of migration from neighboring Latin American countries, which for economic and political reasons settled in Venezuela, including members of the middle and educated sectors, but mostly of poor extraction and low educational level.

Since this model of development fully depended on oil, as resources declined and oil price shocks waned in the early 1980s, crisis mounted. The moment this became apparent came in what is known as the *Viernes Negro* of February 1983, when the national currency, the bolívar, which until then was one of the strongest and most stable currencies in the world, had to be devalued and a currency exchange was implemented. A dramatic economic contraction started that threw into poverty a large share of society, making even larger the existing inequalities. The debt crisis that hit the whole of Latin America and the decline of oil prices in 1986 deepened the deterioration of living standards. Poverty hit 70 percent, and a government led by Carlos Andrés Pérez of *Acción Democrática* in 1988 pushed a set of market-friendly reforms that generated widespread discontent. It provided a context of social turmoil and looting across major Venezuelan cities in February 1989, known as the *Caracazo*. Along with this, military and civilian groups with seeds in the communist guerrillas defeated in the 1960s continued having contact with the Cuban regime and were conspiring against the democratic system, including a military lodge led by, among others, an army officer named Hugo Chávez, who saw an opportunity for a military coup. Even though these military officers failed in two attempts to oust Pérez in 1992, the deterioration of his administration continued and he was impeached by Congress in 1993. Five years later, Chávez, who gained popularity as the visible face of the coup attempts and was fully pardoned and able to compete in elections, supported by a group of small political movements and parties and financially backed

by powerful media, banking, and industrial elites and a discontented middle class, won the elections of 1998. His promise was a refoundation of the republic under new terms, supported by a coalition of groups and personalities of the left and the right.

A streak of electoral victories allowed the movement led by Chávez to enact a new constitution and consolidate power from 1999 to 2004, and laid the base of the *Revolución Bolivariana*. In Chávez's triumph over the alliance of the previous political system, the private economic sector, adverse media groups, unions, sectors of the Catholic Church, and the executive and managerial levels of the oil industry were critical for his consolidation of power. He also succeeded over opposing high-ranking military officers who tried to oust him in 2002–2003 with labor strikes, street protests, and a coup d'état. After defeating the ousting attempts of 2002–2003, Chávez invested himself with full control over the armed forces and the oil industry and the discretionary allocation of its rents. The sharp increase in oil prices that increased fivefold from 2004 to 2008, enabling massive imports and subsidies, and a program of social interventions with full Cuban support, took his popularity to levels unseen since the 1980s for a Venezuelan president. The boom in consumption allowed for an important decrease in poverty. This climate of prosperity gave Chávez the opportunity to openly speak for the first time of socialism in 2005. After easily winning the elections of 2006 with 60 percent of the votes, in 2007 Chavez instituted "Socialism of the 21st Century," and Venezuela officially became a socialist country. As such, an intense and widespread policy of expropriations and nationalizations of enterprises and farmland took place, along with harsh controls on those private businesses still in operation. Nevertheless, in 2007, Chávez promoted a constitutional referendum to ensure him indefinite reelection, and it was rejected by voters, his only electoral defeat. In 2008, the decline by half of oil prices and the first adverse results of socialist policies started to slow his project. Finally, his illness and passing away in 2013 marked the onset of a crisis that is still developing. Nicolás Maduro was appointed by Chávez as his successor in 2013 and assumed the presidency after a fierce election battle. The economic crisis turned into a social catastrophe produced by the scarcity of food and medicine. In December 2015, the opposition won a majority in the National Assembly, causing the executive branch to cut the functions of the parliament through the Supreme Court of Justice, totally controlled by the executive. In April 2017, the pretention of assuming all the legislature's functions, considered in effect a coup d'état, caused significant opposition to take to the streets, remaining in protest for more than 65 days. The response of the government has been disproportionate repression and systematic violation of human rights. In the midst of the protests, Maduro has convened a national

constituent assembly with the purpose of elaborating a new constitution, eliminating the one of 1999 made by Hugo Chávez. In this way, the regime aims to eliminate the opposition National Assembly and deepen the socialist model. Elections of representatives, which restricts the right to a universal, direct, and secret vote, should be made on 30 July 2017. This maneuver, considered another coup d'état attempt, has boosted the protests, which by June 2017 had resulted in 70 deaths, more than 2,000 wounded, and hundreds of detainees.

A

ÁBALOS, JOSÉ DE (La Mancha, Spain, ?–?). Spanish administrator. He was accountant of the Hacienda (Treasury) in Venezuela (1771–1774) and first intendant of **Caracas** (1777–1783). He vigorously repressed abuses, especially those of the **Compañía Guipuzcoana**, and sanitized finances and promoted **agriculture** and commerce. He also established the Crown **tobacco** monopoly.

ABORIGINAL PEOPLE. *See* ORIGINAL PEOPLE.

ABREU, JOSÉ ANTONIO (Valera, 1939–). Orchestra director, composer, and cultural manager. In 1975, he founded, with the support of President **Carlos Andrés Pérez**, the **Sistema de Orquestas y Coros Juveniles e Infantiles de Venezuela** (System of Youth and Children's Orchestras and Choirs of Venezuela), one of the most successful musical **education** projects for young people in the world. It serves as a model for many countries, and many internationally famous musicians, such as **Gustavo Dudamel**, have come out of the *sistema*. For his work, Maestro Abreu has received many awards, such as the Prince of Asturias Award for Arts (2008) and the Polar **Music** Prize of the Royal Swedish Academy (2009). Abreu has also held other public positions, such as minister of culture during Carlos Andrés Pérez's second term (1989–1993).

ACCIÓN DEMOCRÁTICA (AD). **Political party** founded in 1941, when the Partido Democrático Nacional was legalized, created in 1938 by **Rómulo Betancourt** with a group of politicians. It has played a central role in the history of Venezuela during the 20th century. Originally defined as revolutionary, nationalist, democratic, anti-imperialist, and multiclass, the project, initially called Revolución Democrática, consisted of a set of political and social reforms to democratize society; improve the living conditions of the poorest sectors, especially the peasantry; and defend national resources from imperialism. Since 1976, Betancourt has been part of the Socialist International. AD governments instituted fundamental milestones in Venezuelan life such as the promulgation of the universal direct and secret vote (1946),

agrarian reform (1960), the creation of OPEC (1960), and **oil nationalization** (1976). Its main historical leader was Rómulo Betancourt, but members have also included the presidents **Raúl Leoni**, **Carlos Andrés Pérez**, and **Jaime Lusinchi**; thinker and union leader **Luis Beltrán Prieto Figueroa**; novelist **Rómulo Gallegos**; poet **Andrés Bello**; and oil expert **Juan Pablo Pérez Alfonzo**. AD ruled between 1945 and 1948, in the stage known as the **Trienio Adeco**. During this period, Betancourt was president of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno**, along with three other members of the party. Betancourt gave the presidency to Gallegos, who was elected president in the first universal, direct, and secret elections held in the country. Between 1959 and 1964, Betancourt returned as president, now elected through popular vote. He gave the power to Leoni, who ruled between 1964 and 1969. After five years in opposition, AD returned with Carlos Andrés Pérez, who served between 1974 and 1979. They returned again between 1984 and 1993 with President Lusinchi, who gave the presidency, for the second time, to Pérez. Since 1989, they have held governorships and mayorships. The party has undergone several splinterings throughout its history. In 1960, most of the youth movement broke with the organization to create the Movimiento de Izquierda Revolucionaria (MIR), which very soon went on to fight the Betancourt government, including through the *lucha armada* (armed struggle). In 1962, some historical leaders of the ARS group also left the party. Another great division happened in 1968, when Prieto Figueroa left the party when he was not nominated for the presidency and formed the Movimiento Electoral del Pueblo (MEP). This partition cost AD the elections of 1968, won by the party **COPEI** by a narrow margin. Despite being fiercely attacked by the government of **Hugo Chávez** and **Nicolás Maduro**, the party remains one of the main opposition political forces, with an immense presence in the interior of the country. Its political influence is so marked that one of its members presided over the National Assembly between 2016 and 2017, the first term in which the opposition had a majority in the legislative body since the beginning of the **Bolivarian Revolution** in 1999.

ACOSTA, CECILIO (San Diego de los Altos, 1818–Caracas, 1881). Writer, **journalist**, professor, and lawyer. In 1831, he went to **Caracas** in order to fulfill his **education** at the Seminary Tridentine of Santa Rosa. There he learned Latin and read Classical **literature**. This experience was significant in developing his humanistic knowledge. In 1840, he abandoned his sacerdotal formation to complete a career in **law** at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. Upon graduation in 1848, he joined the faculty at his alma mater as professor of political **economy** and civil and criminal universal legislation and became secretary of the Faculty of Humanities. In the mid-

1840s, he became notorious through his writings in the newspapers *La Época* and *El Federal*, where he considered the country's political situation. There he expressed novel thinking about several issues, such as the role of industry in society, the importance of electricity, printing, and immigration. In 1856, he published one of his most celebrated works, *Cosas sabidas y por saberse*, in which he argued that national pedagogy must be focused on the teaching of useful things. This kind of thinking, linked to a tradition created by **Simón Rodríguez**, showed a renovated conception of national education. For all of this, he has been seen as a representative of Venezuelan liberalism in the 19th century. In 1981, La Casa de Bello Foundation edited his complete works. His remains rest at the **National Pantheon**.

ACOSTA ORTÍZ, PABLO (Barquisimeto, 1864–Paris, France, 1914). Surgeon and professor. In 1892, he graduated in **medicine** in Paris and returned to Venezuela to join the medical staff of Vargas Hospital of **Caracas** and to teach at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. He helped to renovate and disseminate medical knowledge in the country and is considered, along with **Luis Razetti**, the founder of modern surgery in Venezuela. In 1904, he became a founding member of the National Academy of Medicine.

ADRIANI, ALBERTO (Mérida, 1898–Caracas, 1936). Economist, writer, diplomat, and politician. He is known as the founder of **economic science** in Venezuela. He obtained his degree in economics and social science at the University of Geneva, the city to which he was assigned as consul. In 1936, he founded the **political party** ORVE along with **Mariano Picón-Salas** and **Rómulo Betancourt**. That year he served briefly as minister of agriculture and finance under **Eleazar López Contreras**. His writings on **agriculture** and monetary policy were collected in the posthumous work *Labor Venezolano*. His phrase “Sembrar el petróleo” (sow the oil), later popularized by **Arturo Uslar Pietri**, argued that Venezuela should use **oil** revenue to diversify, “sow” in his metaphor, into other industry sectors.

AFRO-VENEZUELAN. Category used for Venezuelans whose ancestors came from Sub-Saharan Africa. Even though the word *negro* (black people) does not have the same pejorative meaning as in the United States, and even according to the intonation and the context can be used to show tenderness, in other cases it is used with racist intentions. Following the enactment of the Organic **Law** against Racial Discrimination (2011), which does not strictly ban its use, the politically correct term is *afrovenezuelan*. According to the census of 2011, only 0.7 percent of Venezuelans consider themselves members of this category. There are three possible reasons: the term is probably

not yet popular among the **population**, its promotion by the state gave it a political sense associated with the *chavismo*, and there exists what in Spanish is called *endorracismo* (racist attitudes toward one's own ethnic group). However, 21.7 percent defined themselves as *negro*. According to DNA studies, 23 percent of Venezuelan genetic composition has African roots. In any case, it is a society with deep *mestizaje* (*miscegenation*), in which 50 percent of the people in the same census defined themselves as *morena* (dark skinned). Beyond genetic composition, the African influence is quite large in the culture, in such aspects as **religion**, **music**, and gastronomy. *See also* PARDO.

AGRARIAN REFORM. The first attempt to complete an agrarian reform in Venezuela was made by President **Isaías Medina Angarita**, who issued a law in September 1945, one month before he was overthrown. President **Rómulo Gallegos** issued a second, but shortly after he was also overthrown. Finally, on 5 March 1960, President **Rómulo Betancourt** issued a reform law with the intention of developing small- and medium-sized rural properties and began to break up large landed estates and redistribute them to propertyless peasants. Four decades later, in November 2001, President **Hugo Chávez** issued the new Land and Agrarian Development Law, ending the reform started in 1960. However, there have been no outstanding results of this new agrarian policy. *See also* AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURE. The first Spanish settlers of the **province of Venezuela** learned to use the crops **original people** had cultivated, such as corn, cotton, and **tobacco**. In the early 17th century, **cocoa** trees were grown near **Lake Maracaibo**, and by 1607 the first shipment of cocoa was made from the port of La Guaira. However, it was not until the third decade of the 18th century that the cocoa *conuco* (small plantation) was consolidated and increased its production considerably. Stimulated by demand in New Spain (current Mexico), at the end of the 18th century the export of cocoa was prosperous. The cocoa boom continued until the first decade of the 19th century, when the **War of Independence** led to the destruction and neglect of plantations. Between 1830 and 1920, the leadership of cocoa in agricultural exports was replaced by **coffee**. At the end of the 19th century, the agro-export model entered into crisis due to the external vulnerability to which it was subject. This crisis was accentuated after the First World War and the **economic** crisis of 1929, as well as by the semifeudal structure of the Venezuelan countryside and the precarious conditions in which the rural population lived. In the 1940s and in response to **population** growth, efforts were made to increase productivity in items included in the daily diet of Venezuelans, such as rice and sugar. Traditional agricultural export products suffered international

disrepute due to delays in deliveries and the poor condition of the goods. In the **Trienio** (1945–1948), **agrarian reform** was proposed, but it would only be promulgated at the beginning of representative democracy in the post-**military dictatorship** era. The Agrarian Reform Law of 1960 gave the legal framework for restructuring the sector, with special emphasis on financing small producers. That year the Banco Agrícola y Pecuário (Agricultural and Livestock **Bank**) was created. Several reports agree that *latifundios* (large estates) reached their highest limit in the 1930s. However, by 1960, 71.7 percent of the land was on farms of 1,000 hectares or more. For this reason, between 1959 and 1973, the National Agrarian Institute (IAN) provided 181,000 families with 5,310,000 hectares. During the period between 1936 and 1989, government intervention represented a key issue in the sector, financing or participating directly in agricultural production. This interventionist character would diminish after market-opening policies were introduced in 1989 during **Carlos Andrés Pérez**'s second presidency. Such policies lasted until the beginning of the *chavista* regime under President **Hugo Chávez**. The 1999 political change reopened discussion on the distribution of land. The period started with the promulgation in 2001 of the Ley de Tierras and the implementation of measures that reinforced government intervention, such as confiscating and expropriating highly productive land extensions. The government's programs regarding credit and so-called Fundos Zamorano (small government-sponsored funds, named in honor of **Ezequiel Zamora**) have not offered favorable results in production or investment returns. As a result, the sector has been severely affected, generating food shortages due to poor national production and an insufficient and inefficient governmental import policy.

AGUERREVERE, JUAN JOSÉ (Caracas, 1811–Caracas, 1889). Engineer and professor. In 1837, he graduated in the first class of engineers from the **Mathematics Academy of Caracas**, founded by **Juan Manuel Cajigal**. Between 1840 and 1845, he was in charge of the construction of the Caracas–La Guaira **road**, being the first of its kind in Venezuela. From 1861 to 1867, he was the first president of the College of Engineers. He taught physics and mathematics at several schools even after his retirement.

AGUIRRE, LOPE DE (c. 1511–Barquisimeto, 1561). Conqueror, voyager, and rebel. Known as *El Tirano* (The Tyrant), Aguirre participated in the civil wars between conquerors in Peru during the 1530s. In 1560, he joined the expedition of Pedro de Ursúa to discover the mythical city of **El Dorado**. The difficult voyage across the Marañón and Amazon Rivers caused discontent among the conquistadors, leading in 1561 to a mutiny under the

command of Aguirre and Fernando de Guzmán. Ursúa was executed, and Guzmán proclaimed himself prince of Peru. In July 1561, they arrived at **Margarita Island**, assassinated Governor Juan Sarmiento de Villandrando, and plundered several villages. Soon after, Aguirre and his troops (called by him *marañones*) landed in Venezuelan **Tierra Firme** (the mainland). From **Valencia**, Aguirre sent a letter to King Philip II in which he declared the motives of his rebellion. Wherever his army of *marañones* passed, they committed crimes against people and their property. In October, Aguirre occupied **Barquisimeto**, but Captain Diego García Paredes besieged the city, and the *marañones* fled from Aguirre. Without his forces and surrounded by a superior army, according to legend, Aguirre killed his daughter, Elvira, because he did not want her to be called “the daughter of a traitor.” Captured by García Paredes, he was executed and his body dismembered and exposed in several villages.

AIR FORCE. *See* ARMED FORCES.

ALBA. Spanish acronym of the Alianza Bolivariana para los Pueblos de Nuestra América (Bolivarian Alliance for the People of Our America), a multilateral organization formed in 2004 by **Hugo Chávez** to create a mechanism of alternative integration to the proposed of Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA or ALCA, its acronym in Spanish) led by the **United States**. ALBA promotes integration based on cooperation and not on free trade, inspired by anti-imperialism. It consists of 11 countries: Venezuela, Antigua and Barbuda, Bolivia, **Cuba**, Dominica, Ecuador, Granada, Nicaragua, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent and the Grenadines. Suriname is a special guest member, and there are three observer countries: Haiti, Iran, and Syria. Most of these members maintain critical positions or are in open confrontation with the United States. ALBA has been one of the most important platforms of international policy of the **Bolivarian Revolution**. ALBA has lost steam and relevance following Chávez’s passing away, and Venezuela, its major financial supporter, has suffered **economic** problems due to low **oil** prices and mismanagement. *See also* BOLIVARIAN SOCIALISM; PETROCARIBE.

ALFÍNGER, AMBROSIO (Ulm, Germany, 1505–Valle de Chinacota, Colombia, 1533). First governor and general captain of the **province of Venezuela**. When in 1528 the Emperor Charles V created the province of Venezuela and entrusted it to the **Welsers**, Alfínger was the factor (manager) of the Welser House in Santo Domingo. Once designated governor, he arrived in **Coro** in 1529. From this city, he started an expedition to the west, founding the first settlement of **Maracaibo** (1529). He returned a year later with his

strength decimated but with a big payoff in **gold**. In 1531, he started another expedition, this time going deep into the territory now known as **Colombia**. He died in an encounter with **indigenous** people; nevertheless, the expedition delivered more than 30,000 pesos of gold.

ALFONZO RAVARD, RAFAEL (Caracas, 1919–Caracas, 2006). Military officer, engineer, and public servant. After graduating from the Military Academy in **Caracas** (1940), he went to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to study engineering (1945). At the Special Projects Office in the 1950s, he was one of the planners of the projects to develop **Guayana** hydroelectric and basic industry potential. In 1960, he became president of **Corporación Venezolana de Guayana**. Upon **oil nationalization**, he was the first president of the state-owned oil holding company **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.**, leading a successful transition from private hands to the public sector. He was also president of Corporación Venezolana de Fomento and a senator in the National Congress. Retired from public service, he was from 1985 to 1998 president of Alfonzo Rivas & Cía., a company founded by his father. He was a member of Academy of Physical Sciences and Mathematics and an active supporter of social responsibility efforts, such as **Fe y Alegría**.

“ALMA LLANERA.” A **joropo** song composed by **Pedro Elías Gutiérrez** on a text by **Rafael Bolívar Coronado**. It is formed of two waltz adaptations, “Marisela” by Sebastián Díaz Peña and “Mita” by Jean Gerard Palm. The song is part of the *zarzuela* of the same name that premiered on 19 September 1914, at the Teatro Caracas. It is considered the second anthem of Venezuela. It is a tradition in the country to end any social gathering or party with an intonation of “Alma llanera.” *See also* **LLANOS**.

ALVARADO, LISANDRO (El Tocuyo, 1858–Valencia, 1929). Historian, linguist, ethnologist, and naturalist. In 1878, he went to study in **Caracas**, where he graduated in **medicine**. There he learned the positivist thought of **Adolfo Ernst** and **Rafael Villavicencio**. He traveled through almost all of Venezuelan territory and took notes on popular traditions, flora, fauna, **indigenous** languages, and local use of Spanish and gained the prestige of erudition. Among his works are *Neurosis de hombres célebres de Venezuela* (1893), *Sobre las guerras civiles del país* (1894), *Glosario de voces indígenas de Venezuela* (1921), *Alteraciones fonéticas del español en Venezuela* (1922), and *Glosario del bajo español de Venezuela* (1929). He joined the National Academy of Medicine (1905), the **Venezuelan Academy of Language** (1922), and the **National Academy of History** (1923). His remains rest at the **National Pantheon**.

AMAZONAS (STATE). Located at the southernmost end of Venezuela, one of the 24 states that have formed the country since 1992. It is part of the Amazonian region because of its vegetation. It also belongs to the Amazon River Basin, as the Río Negro (Black River), one of its tributaries, passes through the territory. It has an area of 183,500 square kilometers (19 percent of Venezuelan territory) and a **population** of 146,800 (2011 census); 10 percent of the **aboriginal** inhabitants of Venezuela live there. It is the second largest state in the country, with seven municipalities (Alto Orinoco, Atabapo, Autana, Atures, Manapiare, Maroa, and Río Negro) and 23 parishes. It has a humid climate with a dense tropical rainforest. The soil has large mineral reserves. Its biodiversity is important for the sustainability of global **health**.

AMPÍES, JUAN (?–Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, 1533). Also known as Juan Ampúes. Conqueror and *factor real*, that is, the person in charge of the commercialization of imported products from the Contracting House for the island of Española, other islands, and **Tierra Firme** (the mainland). He became familiar with **enslaved** natives, who were his responsibility, and became sensitive to their situation. When he was designated factor to conduct *rescates* (bartering with **aboriginal** tribes) on the mainland, he occupied the islands of Los Gigantes (in those days, Curaçao, Aruba, and Bonaire), where he established his base of operations. On these islands, he started to deal with the aboriginal tribes, starting a friendship with the *cacique* Manaure, whose daughter was enslaved but rescued by Ampíes. In 1527, he decided to found an establishment in Tierra Firme, so he sent his son to meet with Manaure in the city of **Coro**. This was an unusually harmonious example of conquerors and indigenous people working together. However, it did not last, because a year later Coro became part of the **province of Venezuela** and was given by Charles V to the **Welser** House to govern and exploit. Ampíes only retained authority over the islands.

ANDEAN (REGION). Natural and administrative region located in the part of the Andean Range in Venezuelan territory. This region begins in **Colombia's** eastern cordillera, which in the knot of Pamplona is divided into two parts: the Sierra of **Mérida** and the Sierra of Perijá. Located in the west of Venezuela, it extends to a number of states (**Barinas, Lara, Mérida, Táchira, Trujillo, and Portuguesa**). Its highest elevation is the **Pico Bolívar** (Bolívar Peak) at 4,978 meters (16,332 feet). The climate is colder than other regions of Venezuela and can reach zero degrees Celsius (*páramo* climate). Its natural resources endowment is one of the largest in the country, in particular of **coffee** crops, the main source of exports in the 19th and early 20th century. There are also mineral resources, along with touristic appeal.

ANDEAN HEGEMONY (1899–1945). Period in the history of Venezuela in which four presidents from the Venezuelan **Andean Region**, specifically **Táchira State**, governed. They were **Cipriano Castro** (1899–1908), **Juan Vicente Gómez** (1908–1935), **Eleazar López Contreras** (1935–1941), and **Isaías Medina Angarita** (1941–1945). During this period, the modern **army** was created. With the new institution, Castro and Gómez could suppress the **caudillismo** and finish the cycle of civil wars started in 1810, which concluded in the final integration of all regions under a single authority. The military slowly acquired a high degree of professionalization and assumed a strong role in society. **Oil** gained its major relevance in political and economic life. Finally, a different political dynamic appeared with the gradual presence of **political parties** and trends toward different ideological tendencies.

ANDES CROSSING (1819). Also known as the Liberating Campaign of Nueva Granada (current **Colombia**). Led by **Simón Bolívar**, the patriot army, after passing through the Venezuelan **llanos**, crossed the Eastern Colombian Andes with the objective of occupying Tunja, where the royalist army of José María Barreiro had its quarters. In order to take these forces by surprise, in a tactical movement that has been remembered by history for its audacity, Bolívar took the path of Pisba *páramo*, the most difficult one. Since most of the patriot soldiers were from the *llanos*, they were not used to such cold weather and were not wearing adequate garments. Many men died, along with their horses, which in turn caused the army to leave behind provisions due to a lack of pack animals. Nevertheless, the effort was successful since the victories in the Battles of Pantano de Vargas and Boyacá enabled the taking of Bogotá. The campaign allowed the incorporation of Nueva Granada into **Gran Colombia** and turned the tide of the **War of Independence** toward the revolutionary forces of South America.

ANDRADE, IGNACIO (Mérida, 1839?–Macuto, 1925). Lawyer, soldier, and politician, president of Venezuela between 1898 and 1899. He worked in different positions at various public offices: president and senator for **Falcón State** (1883–1886), governor of the **Distrito Federal** (1892), minister of public instruction, deputy for the great state of **Miranda**, and minister of public works (1893) and president of the Miranda (1894–1897). In 1897, he was named candidate for president of Venezuela by governing **caudillo** General **Joaquín Crespo**. In a process riddled with irregularities, Andrade was elected president with 406,610 votes against General **José Manuel Hernández**, “El Mocho,” who had great popularity among the **population** but managed just 2,203 votes. Hernández denounced the election as fraudulent and took up arms. Crespo came out in defense of the new government

but was killed during a skirmish in April 1898, leaving Andrade without his political support. With the capture of Hernández and the quelling of the rebellion of Ramón Guerra, Andrade sought to establish his own political system. However, the desires of the caudillos who encouraged his fall to take power, and a grim **economic** outlook due to falling **coffee** prices, gave strength to the rise of **Cipriano Castro** and the triumph of the **Revolución Liberal Restauradora**. Andrade left power on 19 October 1899, and took refuge in Puerto Rico. After an amnesty in 1903, he collaborated with Castro as a minister for Venezuela in **Cuba**. Between 1916 and 1917, under the regime of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, he was minister of foreign affairs and between 1917 and 1922 minister of internal affairs.

ANDUEZA PALACIO, RAIMUNDO (Guanare, 1846–Caracas, 1900). Lawyer, soldier, and politician, president of Venezuela between 1890 and 1892. He completed his law studies at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. In 1866, he was adjutant and then secretary to President **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**. Between 1873 and 1876, he was deputy for **Aragua State**, and in 1876 he became president of the Congress. In 1877, during the government of **Francisco Linares Alcántara**, he served as minister of foreign affairs. That year, in August, in the absence of the president, he took over as manager of the executive. Between 1877 and 1879, he was minister of finance. During the presidency of **Juan Pablo Rojas Paúl**, he was minister of public instruction (1889) and interior affairs (1889–1890). He was named president of Venezuela by the Federal Council for the period 1890–1892, with the support of outgoing president Rojas Paúl and the sympathy of **Liberals** and **Conservatives**. His government began with absolute freedom of expression. A budgetary bonanza as a result of rising **coffee** prices allowed him to perform public works, or complete works started in previous periods, of major scale, such as the **José María Vargas** Hospital in **Caracas**, the **Barquisimeto** aqueduct, and the Barquisimeto–Aroa **railroad** section. The first-category national schools of **Valencia** and **Maracaibo** were transformed into the Universities of **Carabobo** and **Zulia**. On the force of economic prosperity, Andueza Palacio tried to garner electoral support for constitutional reform to extend his presidential term from two to four years. Not having enough votes for approval in Congress, the government used popular assemblies to proclaim the validity of the reform. In response, **Joaquín Crespo** took up arms in command of the **Revolución Legalista**, forcing his resignation in June 1892. He went into exile until 1898, the year of Crespo's death. Between 1899 and 1900, he was minister of foreign affairs for President **Cipriano Castro**.

ANDÚJAR, FRANCISCO (Andújar, Spain, 1760–Panapana, 1817). Capuchin missionary, mathematics professor, and researcher in natural sciences.

He was a teacher of the young **Simón Bolívar**. In 1800, he accompanied **Alexander von Humboldt** on the first ascent to the Silla de Caracas (Caracas's Chair) on top of **Ávila Mountain**.

ANGEL FALLS. Located in the southeast of Venezuela, in Canaima National Park of the **Gran Sabana** Region, **Bolívar State**. Other names were given to the waterfall by the local tribes, including Churun Merun and Kerekupai Vena. It is located on top of Auyantepuy Mountain. It is the highest uninterrupted waterfall in the world at 979 meters (3,212 feet). First spotted by the explorer Felix Cardona in 1927, its name was given as a tribute to Jimmy Angel, a U.S. aviator who in 1937 landed his plane on top of Auyantepuy while making explorations for **gold**. In 1994, the falls gained protection as a UNESCO World Heritage Site. It is the most popular tourist attraction in the area, along with the *tepuyes*. *See also* **TEPUY**.

ANGOSTURA. *See* **CIUDAD BOLÍVAR**.

ANGOSTURA ADDRESS. Speech given by **Simón Bolívar** on 15 February 1819 in Angostura (later **Ciudad Bolívar**) during the inauguration of the **Angostura Congress**. It is considered one of Bolívar's most important political documents. It presents a constitutional project that synthesizes his ideas and judgments on how the republic should work in Venezuela to prevent disorders such as those the country had been suffering since the beginning of the **War of Independence**. He made a call to create an original model based on the characteristics and reality of the country, although largely inspired by the British constitution. Thus, he proposed a hereditary senate to give the republic a ruling elite that would give stability, but combined it with a house of representatives elected by popular vote. He also proposed the creation of a fourth power, the moral, which would be responsible for ensuring social mores and **education**. Finally, he called for the abolition of **slavery**. His constitutional proposal was not accepted by the Congress, which chose a more conventional liberal model of republic.

ANGOSTURA CONGRESS (1819). The second constituent congress of Venezuela, gathered between 15 February 1819 and 20 January 1820 in Angostura (now **Ciudad Bolívar**). Its main goal was to restore the institutions of the republic, harmed by the events of **War of Independence**. On the opening day, **Simón Bolívar** made his famous **Angostura Address**, considered one of the key pieces of his thought. On 17 December 1819, the Congress enacted the Basic Law of the Republic of Colombia, creating the union of **Gran Colombia**.

ANZOÁTEGUI (STATE). Located in the northeast of Venezuela, it covers 43,300 square kilometers (4.7 percent of the national territory) and has a **population** of 1,768,329 (2011 census, 6.1 percent of the country). It was created in 1810 as the province of **Barcelona** as a result of the division of the province of **Cumaná**. In 1909, it was renamed after the independence hero **José Antonio Anzoátegui**, who was born in the city of Barcelona. It has 21 municipalities (Anaco, Aragua, **Fernando de Peñalver**, **Francisco de Miranda**, and Píritu, among others) and 58 parishes, and the capital is Barcelona. Its territory contains two natural regions: the coast and the *llanos* (plains). Its **economy** is diverse, with sources including fertile soil, natural resources (thermal waters, lakes, islands, bays), energy, minerals (limestone, coal, **oil**, and natural gas), and fishing. However, the main economic locations in the state are the cities of Puerto La Cruz, El Tigre, San Tomé, and Anaco due to the oil industry activity conducted there.

ANZOÁTEGUI, JOSÉ ANTONIO (Barcelona, 1789–Pamplona, Colombia, 1819). Soldier. Involved since 1810 in the cause of independence, he participated in numerous campaigns as an officer of the Venezuelan **Army**. In 1816, in Haiti, he was named commander of the Honor Guard by **Simón Bolívar** and participated in the **Los Cayos Expedition** to invade Venezuela. After his significant participation in the Battle of Boyacá, in 1819 he received the rank of general of division. In 1909, the state of **Barcelona** took the name Anzoátegui, honoring his memory.

ANZOLA, EDGAR (Villa de Cura, 1894–Caracas, 1981). Journalist, photographer, humorist, actor, and radio broadcaster. Working for **William H. Phelps Prince**, he was sent to the **United States** to study automobile mechanics and electronics. In 1930, along with Phelps, he founded Broadcasting Caracas, now Radio Caracas Radio. A pioneer in motion pictures, in 1913 he was part of the country's first silent film, *La Dama de las Cayenas*. He experimented with sound and color and was the producer of movies and documentaries, such as a famous one regarding the painter **Armando Reverón**.

APRIL 11, 2002, EVENTS OF. On this day, amid a national strike, a massive protest departed from one of the main offices of **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.**, toward the presidential palace of Miraflores, calling for President **Hugo Chávez**'s resignation. During the march, near Government House, 19 people were killed and several more were wounded by gunshots; this is known as the Masacre del 11 de Abril. Although both the government and the opposition made each other responsible in these deaths, a TV tape aired short after showed government supporters shooting from a bridge at the opposi-

tion protesters. In the evening, high-ranking officers of the **army**, **navy**, and National Guard defected from the government and captured Chávez. At the end of the day, the minister of defense announced on public **television** that the president had resigned. **FEDECÁMARAS's Pedro Carmona Estanga** was appointed president, and he assumed executive office and dissolved all powers on 12 April. This act was considered a coup d'état by some military sections, and the negative reaction to this proclamation translated into popular protests. Political leaders and unions announced on TV their discontent, and a section of the army triggered a military coup that reinstalled Chávez on the evening of 13 April.

APRIL 19, 1810. Date on which the **Junta Suprema Conservadora de los Derechos de Fernando VII** (Caracas Supreme Board) was assembled in **Caracas** to rebel against José Bonaparte's reign in Spain, setting up the first autonomous government in Venezuelan history. It is considered the start of independence in Venezuela. On that day, the Caracas City Council deposed General Captain **Vicente Emparan** and other royal officers, substituting them with a joint government (junta) in the style of those set up in Spain to face the Napoleonic invasion. the junta was composed of local creole aristocracy (**mantuanos**) who assumed the function of the king, in whose name they started to govern. Officially, its objective was to defend the territory from a potential French invasion, feared due to the proximity of French colonies in the Caribbean and the arrival of emissaries of Bonaparte to Caracas. The defeat of Spanish forces in the provinces of Spain led them to organize a local defense. However, this government started a set of revolutionary changes, such as providing representation to African descendants, banning the slave trade (but not **slavery**), and allowing trade freedom and a free press. The junta also started autonomous diplomacy, sending missions to the **United States**, Great Britain, and Nueva Granada, with which it signed an integration pact. Nevertheless, the most relevant reform was calling elections with a modern electoral framework for a constituent congress, installed on 2 March 1811 (**Congress of 1811**). This congress declared independence on **July 5, 1811**. Other provinces followed the example of Caracas and set up their own boards in **Cumaná**, **Barcelona**, **Margarita**, and **Trujillo**, which accepted Caracas's primacy. For loyal Spanish authorities, the junta was always illegitimate, which triggered the **War of Independence**. The formation of the Caracas junta was key to development of *juntismo* in Hispanic America.

APURE (STATE). Located in the southwest of the country, it covers 76,500 square kilometers (8.35 percent of the national territory) and its **population** is 459,025 (2011 census, 1.58 percent of the nation). Its name comes

from the Apure River, an important navigation route that crosses its territory. Its capital is San Fernando de Apure, and it has seven municipalities (Achaguas, Biruaca, Muñóz, Páez, **Pedro Camejo**, **Rómulo Gallegos**, and San Fernando) and 26 parishes. It was part of the province of **Barinas** until 1823. Its **economy** is mostly **agricultural** because of the soil fertility of the *llanos* (plains), supporting important cattle activities. This territory has three different types of vegetation (forest, savanna, and aquatic relief) supporting reptiles, mammals, and birds of different types. Tourist attractions include the natural landscape and cultural expressions.

ARAGUA (STATE). Located at the center-north of the country, it has an area of 7,014 square kilometers (0.76 percent of the national territory) and a **population** of 2,400,120 (2011 census, 8.29 percent of the country). Its capital is Maracay, and it has 18 municipalities (Bolívar, Camatagua, Girardot, Libertador, Sucre, Tovar, and Urdaneta, among others) and 34 parishes. Its natural regions include the coastal mountain range in the north, the valleys of the Aragua River in the center, and an interior mountain range in the south. It was part of the province of **Caracas** until 1848. During the 19th century, it was an important strategic point because it connected the *llanos* with the center of Venezuela, and several key battles of the **War of Independence** and other armed conflicts took place there. It was declared a state in 1864. Its fertile soils have allowed the development of **agriculture**, its location the setting up of manufacturing industry and military compounds, and its natural endowment tourism.

ARANGUREN, ANTONIO (Caracas, 1868–Caracas, 1954). **Businessman** and politician. Born into a family of **Zulia State**'s local commercial bourgeoisie, in 1907, through his connections with **Cipriano Castro**'s government, Aranguren was awarded an **oil concession** to exploit the **Lake Maracaibo** basin, the "Aranguren Concession," but he was unable to find the resources to invest in and develop the concession within Venezuela. He turned to British investors and in 1913 negotiated the concession's transference, obtaining participation in the company set up for this purpose, Venezuelan Oil Concessions Ltd. (VOC). The **Compañía Shell de Venezuela**, part of the Anglo-Dutch oil group Royal Dutch Shell, bought this company the same year. Sitting in one of the largest oil reservoirs in the world, including the **Reventón del Barrosos 2** oil well in 1922, this venture placed Venezuela on the global energy map. VOC became one of Venezuela's most profitable oil firms, and Aranguren amassed one of the largest fortunes in the country. He spent most of his business life in London and Paris during the 1920s until the mid-1930s. Nevertheless, Aranguren was actively involved in local politics

and financed attempts to overthrow the **Juan Vicente Gómez** regime, supporting some maritime invasions, including the *Falke Invasion*. In this process, **Rafael Simón Urbina**, who had led some of these invasions, became his protégé. Aranguren returned to Venezuela in 1936, but his ties with past dictatorships meant he was put on trial in 1946 by the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno** as a former collaborator of Gómez and Castro. He negotiated a fine to be exempt of further prosecution. Shortly after, he had a leading role in the kidnapping and assassination of Venezuelan military junta president **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**, perpetrated by Urbina in a house owned by him. He was imprisoned and tried but was released as his participation could not be proven.

ARAWAK PEOPLE. One of the native groups who inhabited the territories of the current Venezuela in the **pre-Hispanic period**. By the time of the arrival of the Spaniards, they were distributed along the coast, especially in the west of the country. Some of the tribes that belong to this ethnic group are the **Wayúu** (also known as Guajiros), located on the **Guajira Peninsula**, and the Añús, located in the northwest of **Maracaibo**, especially on Sinamaica Lake. *See also* ORIGINAL PEOPLE.

ARCAJA, PEDRO MANUEL (Coro, 1874–Caracas, 1958). Lawyer, sociologist, and historian. He completed a series of studies on history, sociology, ethnography, and linguistics in Venezuela and became one of the leading figures of the Venezuelan positivist generation, along with **José Gil Fortoul**, **Laureano Vallenilla Lanz**, and **Lisandro Alvarado**. In 1910, he was made a member of the **National Academy of History** for the work *La insurrección de los negros de la serranía de Coro en 1795* (Insurrection of the Slaves of the Mountains of Coro in 1795). In 1911, he published *Estudios sobre personajes y hechos de la historia venezolana* (Studies on Characters and Events in Venezuelan History), in 1928 *Estudios de sociología venezolana* (Studies of Venezuelan Sociology), and in 1935 *Venezuela y su actual régimen* (Venezuela and Its Current Regime), which was a synthesis and defense of the government of **Juan Vicente Gómez**. Being a close associate of the Gómez regime, between 1908 and 1935 he was a member of the Federal High Court, general attorney of the republic, interior minister, senator, president of the Congress, and ambassador to Washington. In 1916, he proposed the reform of the civil **code**, which introduced innovations in marriage, civil registry, natural filiation, and inheritance. In 1945, he was accused of embezzlement during the Gómez regime, charges of which he was acquitted. In 1963, his memoirs were published. His personal library of 147,119 volumes was donated to the nation by his descendants, becoming part of the catalog of the National Library in Caracas.

ARCHBISHOPRIC OF VENEZUELA. The first bishop of the diocese of the province of Venezuela was **Rodrigo de Bastidas (the Younger)** in the See of **Coro** in 1531. In 1638, the see was transferred to **Caracas**. At that time, the provinces of **Margarita**, **Trinidad**, **Nueva Andalucía**, and **Guayana** were dependent on the See of Puerto Rico. In 1777, **Mérida** became a bishopric under the jurisdiction of Bogotá, and in 1790 Guayana became a diocese under the authority of Santo Domingo. On 16 July 1803, Caracas was decreed an archbishopric with the bishoprics of Guayana and Mérida under its authority. Francisco de Ibarra became the first archbishop.

ARCHEOLOGY. The practice of archeology in Venezuela is relatively recent. At first, from the end of the 19th century and up into the 1930s, it was writers, fond of history and ethnology, who concentrated on the local study of **aboriginal** societies. In 1871, the National Museum held a collection of Venezuelan and foreign archeological objects (currently part of the Science Museum of Caracas). From 1889 to 1891, **Gaspar Marciano** published his three-volume *Etnographie Précolombine de Vénézuëla*, which can be considered the first example of the discipline in Venezuela. In the beginning of the 20th century, intellectuals like **Pedro Manuel Arcaya**, **Mario Briceño Iragorry**, and Rafael Requena started to collect and systematically classify archeological remains. In 1913, the La Salle religious **Hermano Nectario María** arrived to **Barquisimeto** and started to develop immense archeological research in the region. This allowed for the creation of the La Salle Museum of Barquisimeto, today one of the most important collections in Venezuela. Later, from the 1930s to 1950s, foreign archeologists with specialized studies (Wendell Bennett, George Howard, Irwing Rouse, and José María Cruxent, among others) started doing research in Venezuela. Applying techniques like metric stratigraphy and concentrating on the temporal and the descriptive, this archeological work was concerned with the special features of the societies studied and did not as a whole relate them to a unique historical process. Nevertheless, in 1953, during the dictatorship of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, the School of Sociology and Anthropology at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** was founded, and archeologists started specialized preparation. This context generated the appearance of tendencies in research, like the descriptive focus, through the relevant influence of Rouse and Cruxent, and other studies with emphasis in the relationship and historical analysis of societies, influenced by researchers like the European Vere G. Childe and the Venezuelan Miguel Acosta Saignes. In 1946, Cruxent and Rouse started the research that produced their work *Arqueología Cronológica de Venezuela* (1958), which was a breakthrough in the discipline. In 1949, archeological excavations in **Cubagua** started, generating substantial attention in the pub-

lic. During these years, the Collection of Egyptian Art of the Museo de Bellas Artes in Caracas was acquired. In 1959, the Archeology Department of the **Instituto Venezolano de Investigaciones Científicas** was created, under the leadership of Cruxent, boosting the discipline. In 1980, Cruxent created the Centro de Investigaciones Antropológicas, Arqueológicas y Paleontológicas at the Universidad Francisco de Miranda in **Coro**. Since then, there have been many archeological studies in the country conducted by such researchers as Mario Sanoja Obediente, Henriqueta Peñalver, Erika Wagner, and Emanuele Amodio. Their work allowed for the creation of archeological museums like the Museo de Antropología e Historia of Maracay (1960); the Museo de Antropología, Arte e Historia Henriqueta Peñalver in **Valencia** (1964); the Museum of Quíbor (1980); and the Museum Gonzalo Rincón Gutiérrez in **Mérida** (1986). Today archeological activity has found a wide space to develop in the area of cultural heritage. *See also* ORIGINAL PEOPLE.

AREPA. Local variety of bread in a circular shape made of cooked and milled corn, or with corn flour, typical of Venezuela, **Colombia**, Panama, the Canary Islands, and some Caribbean islands. The dough can be cooked on a *budare* (clay or iron plate) and is usually eaten at breakfast or dinner. The word arepa, documented since 16th century, come from the Cumana-goto **indigenous** group, although referring only to the corn. It is a dish so representative of Venezuelan culture that it has become a symbol of national identity.

ARETZ, ISABEL (Buenos Aires, Argentina, 1909–San Isidro, Argentina, 2005). Ethnomusicologist, researcher, and composer. She studied at the Conservatorio Nacional de Música y Arte Escénico in Argentina and married Venezuelan Luis Felipe Ramón y Rivera. Once in Venezuela, she was invited by **Juan Liscano** to organize the music section of the Servicio de Investigaciones Folklóricas. During her life, she contributed to the preservation and spreading of the popular **music** of Latin America. One of her most representative works is the *Manual del Folklore venezolano* (1972), one of the first texts published on the subject.

ARIAS BLANCO, RAFAEL (La Guaira, 1906–Barcelona, 1959). **Archbishop** of Caracas. In 1928, he was ordained in Rome after receiving his priestly formation in the Colegio Pío Latinoamericano and obtaining a doctoral degree in theology at the Gregorian University. In 1955, he became archbishop of Caracas. As head of the archbishopric, he founded the Secretariat for Social Action Cháritas. On Labor Day, 1 May 1957, he read a pastoral letter that became an echo of the growing popular opposition to the

government of General **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. Written in sober but forceful language, it talked about the impoverishment of Venezuelan workers and condemned the larceny and outrageous searching of thousands of homes by **Seguridad Nacional**, the political police force. The speech helped to organize a movement of resistance to the government and accelerated the process that culminated in the fall of the dictatorship on **January 23, 1958**. He died in a traffic accident.

ARISMENDI, JUAN BAUTISTA (La Asunción, 1775–Caracas, 1841). Soldier, politician, and independence leader. From **Margarita Island**, he supported the movement that emerged in Caracas on **April 19, 1810**. In 1812, he fought in the campaign in **Guayana** and in 1814 resisted until being defeated in Ocumare del Tuy by royalist forces marching toward Caracas. In 1815, as general commander of Margarita, he accepted the amnesty offered by **Pablo Morillo**, who had arrived with an expedition of 15,000 Spaniards in about 60 ships. Shortly after that, he resumed his revolutionary activities. Before he escaped the Spanish siege, his pregnant wife, **Luisa Cáceres de Arismendi**, was captured. Arismendi rejected the request for a prisoner exchange for his wife, who while imprisoned gave birth to a dead baby girl. In 1816, he received **Simón Bolívar**, who came from Haiti with an expeditionary force (known as the **Los Cayos Expedition**). Then he was promoted to the rank of general-in-chief. In 1821, under the orders of **José Francisco Bermúdez**, he participated in the campaign of **Carabobo**. In 1828, he was named second army commander by **José Antonio Páez**. In 1830, he supported the separation of Venezuela from **Gran Colombia** and until his last years attended the Senate on behalf of Margarita. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

ARMADA. *See* NAVY.

ARMED FORCES. Before the discovery of America by Europeans, the **aboriginal** population built weapons with wood and stone to defend against animals and other tribes and as tools to be used in the hunting, fishing, and gathering of food. They were fundamentally stone axes, wood bludgeons, and bows and arrows. These original people were trained as warriors and faced the Spanish during the conquest and occupation of Venezuela. With the Europeans arrived the first organized armies, formed in companies and battalions. During the **War of Independence**, patriots used colonial militias along with the drafting of the **population** to achieve a regular army. Soldiers were trained during their incorporation in the armed forces and on the battlefield. Following 1830, once Venezuela separated from **Gran Colombia**, the Military Academy was created within the **Mathematics Academy of**

Caracas. This was organized under the recently established secretary of war and **navy**, divided into two sections and formed by three forces: **army**, navy, and National Militia. The force consisted of three thousand men and could be increased in case of war. The evolution of the navy was slower, and it was only by the 1860s that it reached a certain level of relevance and achieved an acceptable dotation. The efforts made from 1830 through the rest of the 19th century did not reach the level of an organized national armed force. This was finally achieved at the beginning of the 20th century, when in 1907 the Military Academy of Venezuela was officially institutionalized. In 1920, the Military Aviation School was founded, preceding the current National Air Force, and in 1937 the School of the National Service of Security, now National Guard, was created. Beginning in 1946, the armed forces were advised by a U.S. military mission. From 1949 to 1957, the armed forces reached their highest level of development in terms of organization, training, equipment, and operative capacity. From 1958 to 1983, during the ***lucha armada***, the armed forces had to face armed insurrection from leftist guerrillas who had support from **Cuba**, being able to defeat them by the creation of theaters of operation and training counter-guerrilla forces. The army was organized into divisions and brigades, and tanks and artillery units were upgraded. In addition, the Education Directorate of the Ministry of Defense was created. The Air Force was armed with state-of-the-art French and North American fighting planes and helicopters. The navy received destroyers and frigates with missile-launching capacities. This equipment was put to the test during the **crisis of the Caldas corvette** with **Colombia**. Since 1999, during **Hugo Chávez's** regime, the military has seen changes in its organization, structure, and training. It was renamed Fuerza Armada Nacional Bolivariana, with five components: Army, Navy, Aviation, National Guard, and Bolivarian Militia, the latter composed of the National Militia and Territorial Guard. Its equipment is currently mostly Russian and Chinese material, and U.S. advice was traded for Cuban. Despite major expenditures on defense, the armed forces are passing through a collapse in operative capacity, low morale, polarization, and ideological discord in the ranks.

ARMY. The *ejército* is the land component of the Venezuelan **Armed Forces**. It has traditionally been the most important and largest component, and conventionally the whole military sector is treated under this name. The professional army has its starting point in the military reforms of 1910 under **Juan Vicente Gómez**. Even though its precedents can be found in the Liberator Army, as the republican armed forces were denominated during the **War of Independence**, during the whole 19th century it was an ineffective and unprofessional force. In 1910, the modern Military School was created (current

Military Academy) with the objective of training a professional officer corps and, in the Escuela de Clases, professionalizing existing officers. In addition, measures were taken to upgrade weaponry and the training of troops. In this way, the Army Intendancy was created for a more efficient administration, and scholarships were granted to officers to train overseas. In 1920, Military Aviation was created, initially dependent on the army, and in 1923 a mission was sent to Europe to learn and adopt changes in military science after the First World War. Since then, the army has played an essential role in Venezuelan life, ensuring peace and exerting influence on or even holding the reins of the state. These are two lines that were combined during the 20th century and the first two decades of the 21st, without which it is not possible to fully understand the Venezuelan Army. In the specifically military line, the army averted potential civil wars that could have disrupted the stability of the country. Gómez, for example, started his reform with the help of the government troops with whom he had defeated the **Revolución Libertadora**; hence, the central objective of the force was to neutralize the **caudillismo**. Even though during Gómez's government paramilitary forces continued to exist, like the so-called Sagrada, when between 1929 and 1930 there were attempts to oust Gómez, the army was able to suffocate them all with minimal losses. Of these engagements, the most famous is the **Falke Invasion**. The second test for the army was the *lucha armada*, the insurrection of communist guerrillas in the period 1962–1968. The way in which the insurrection was defeated is a case study in the history of counterinsurgency war. The Venezuelan Army was, in fact, the most successful in Latin America, and even though it was supported by the social reforms of democracy, which removed a support base for the guerrillas in the rural areas, in combat it was able to inflict important blows. The operations to counter the Machurucuto Invasion of **Cuban** and Venezuelan guerrillas in 1967 is an example of the army's strength. In the same way, even though the army has not participated in an international war, in the two moments in which Venezuela was on the brink of war with **Colombia** over the delimitation of the **Gulf of Venezuela**, in 1952 and 1987, the prompt response of the army was a dissuasive element key for the negotiations.

In the political line, the army has been quite active in conducting the affairs of Venezuela, in direct form or allied with other civilian sectors. When Gómez died in 1935, the army was the only institution with the national scope to control the country. Power was left in the hands of General **Eleazar López Contreras**, minister of war and navy (as the minister of defense was known then), who in turn handed power over in 1941 to his own war minister, General **Isaías Medina Angarita**. In both cases, they were Andean military officers, where the regionalist variable, inherited from caudillismo and the base of the **Andean Hegemony**, combined with what some specialists have named

pretorianismo (praetorianism), the tendency of the armed forces to influence the political system or lead it directly.

Starting in the 1930s, modernization accelerated. In 1937, the National Guard was created, a force of gendarmerie inspired by the Spanish Guardia Civil that initially depended on the army, which made it a large force combining aviation and gendarmerie (both forces became autonomous later). In 1938, the army reorganized and during the Second World War, with the objective of protecting **oil** industry facilities, benefited from the Lend-Lease policy of the United States. In this way, modern weaponry and American military missions arrived to Venezuela to help renew the army. When Medina Angarita was ousted in the military coup of **October 18, 1945**, those who led the coup represented a new military generation, grouped in a lodge, the Unión Patriótica Militar, opportunistically allied with **Acción Democrática**. The leaders of this lodge were **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**, **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, and **Luis Felipe Llovera Páez**. The young military men were convinced that the armed forces were the only institution with the technical and managerial capacity to develop Venezuela. As a consequence, as soon as they could, they stopped the democratic process that had started in 1945 and took power in November 1948. This was a basic premise of the **military dictatorship** of 1948–1958. When democracy restarted in 1958, civil control over the military sector was relatively effective for the first time in republican history. The Constitution of 1961 specifically indicated the *apoliticidad* (without political party affiliation) nature of the armed forces, and members of the military did not have the right to vote. Military coups attempted in 1958, 1960, 1961, and 1962 were defeated, and the military sector loyal to democratic institutionalism was acclaimed as victorious. The guerrilla war helped as well, providing the civilian and military sectors a common enemy that proposed to eliminate both. In addition, as was the case with the Second World War, the counterinsurgency war triggered relevant enhancements and close support from the United States. Nevertheless, this came with concessions, such as leaving in military hands all security and defense policy.

Once the counterinsurgency war ended, in the 1970s military lodges reappeared, like ARMA and R-83. The most important one was Movimiento Bolivariano 200, to which **Hugo Chávez** belonged. Once the democratic system entered into crisis in the 1980s, the army became relevant again. During the **Caracazo** in February 1989, the army was in charge of restoring order, but at the same time the lodges saw an opportunity to go into action. Despite the failure of the military coups of 1992, Chávez gained popularity and ended up winning the presidency with votes in 1998. Since then, the scheme of leader–army–people has prevailed, in which the military has acquired a growing importance, managing **banks** and industries and assuming public

administration positions that used to be held by civilians. Chávez named himself commander-president and used a uniform, and the armed forces were renamed the National Bolivarian Armed Force. All this gave a clear political adscription to the army, whose *apoliticidad* has been eroded. After the failure of the coup during the **April 11, 2002, events**, Chávez was able to conduct a cleansing of the top military brass and to substitute them with officers loyal to his movement. After he passed away in 2013, state representatives talked about a political–military high command of the revolution, whose components, structure, and functions are unclear.

ARRÁIZ, ANTONIO (Barquisimeto, 1903–Wesport, CT, United States, 1962). Poet, novelist, and essayist. In 1919, he traveled to the **United States**. There he read Walt Whitman's poems, which were a great influence on the writing of *Áspero* (1924), for some critics the book that initiated modern poetry in Venezuela. He went to prison for several years for participating in the student protests of 1928 against **Juan Vicente Gómez's** dictatorship. This experience was depicted in his novel *Puros hombres* (1938). In 1945, he published a collection of children's stories, *Tío Tigre y Tío Conejo*, inspired by Venezuelan folklore. He joined **Miguel Otero Silva** to found the newspaper *El Nacional*, being its first director between 1943 and 1948. *See also* GENERACIÓN DEL 28.

ART. *See* VISUAL ARTS.

ASSAULT OF PUERTO CABELLO (8 November 1823). Military action led by **José Antonio Páez** that marked the end of Spanish resistance in Venezuela during the **War of Independence**. After this fight, there were only a few isolated guerrillas. After the capitulation of **Francisco Tomás Morales**, the last general captain of Venezuela, Puerto Cabello, a walled port surrounded by water and mangroves, was the only garrison left under Spanish control in Venezuela. As the republicans expected and feared the landing of a Spanish expeditionary force from **Cuba**, Paéz and his lancer troops besieged the port. Once he found a place among the mangroves to surprise the royalist troops, Páez made a spectacular assault to conquer the port. The place where he suddenly came into the port still bears the name of Calle de los Lanceros (Lancers' Road).

AVELEDO, AGUSTÍN (Caracas, 1837–Caracas, 1926). Engineer and educator. In 1855, he graduated as an engineer from the **Mathematics Academy of Caracas** and in 1880 with a PhD from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. From the age of 22, he devoted himself to **education**. With

Ángel Ribas Baldwin, he established the Colegio Santa María, one of the most famous in the history of Venezuela. This school was a meeting place for various intellectuals, such as José Martí, who taught there when he was in **Caracas**. Avelado was also one of the founders of the College of Engineers of Venezuela and of the Society of Physical and Natural **Sciences**. As a philanthropist, in 1878, he founded the Asylum for Orphans of Caracas, and he was also president of the board of education of the **Distrito Federal**, installed in 1893. He was part of the editorial board of the *Revista Científica* (Scientific Journal) between January and April 1862. He also collaborated on the magazine *Vargasia* as well as on the daily **newspapers** *La Opinión Nacional*, *El Tiempo*, and *La Religión*.

AVES (ISLAND). One of the **islands** of the Federal Dependencies of Venezuela, located 500 kilometers from **Margarita Island** and with a surface area of 4.5 hectares. It is mostly uninhabited due to the lack of water but has a constant **population** of oceanic birds and turtles. The island allows the extension of the continental shield as well as Venezuela's exclusive economic zone, permitting the country an extended presence in the Caribbean Sea. Because of the island, Venezuela has a frontier with the **United States**, the Netherlands, Great Britain, France, Dominica, Saint Lucia, and Saint Vincent. Aves Island is bordered by reef and coral. It was part of the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** beginning in 1777. In 1950, it was occupied by the military to preserve its possession for Venezuela, and for the same interest in 1958 the **Simón Bolívar** Scientific Naval Base was created. The island has been losing a small proportion of land every year due to storms.

AVIATION. *See* TRANSPORTATION.

ÁVILA MOUNTAIN. Located in **Caracas (Distrito Capital)** and in **Vargas** and **Miranda** States. It was called Waraira Repano by the **original people**, a name that became its official denomination in 2011. It is 2,159 meters high (9,072 feet). The name comes from Gabriel de Ávila, one of the founders of Santiago de León de Caracas. "El Ávila," as it is commonly known, is the geographical landmark of Caracas and forms part of the Coastal Mountain Range. In the colonial period, it was used by the conquerors for transit between the coast and the Caracas Valley by the building of a road that connected those places. In 1800, it was climbed for the first time by **Alexander von Humboldt**. A large diversity of vegetation and fauna grow on its slopes. In 1958, it was declared a national park and a protected zone. It is one of Caracas's main tourist attractions as people can climb it or go to the top in a cable car.

B

BALATÁ. Also called *purgüey*, *purvio*, *pendare*, and *nispero*. A kind of tree whose juice was in high demand, especially between 1890 and 1930 during the beginnings of the car industry, along with **rubber**. It was exported from **Ciudad Bolívar** until its decline due to the economic crisis of the 1930s.

BALDÓ, JOSÉ IGNACIO (San Cristóbal 1898–Caracas 1972). Pulmonologist and pioneer in the struggle against tuberculosis. He went to Europe in 1920 shortly after he graduated as a doctor of medical sciences from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**. In Switzerland, due to **health** complications as a result of tuberculosis, he went under treatment and began his studies of phthisiology and tuberculosis control. In 1926, he returned to Venezuela and began his career in public health. In 1936, he founded the Division of Phthisiology in the Ministry of Health. During this period, he developed the medical program for the specialized tuberculosis health center El Algodonal. He was an associate professor of phthisiology in the Faculty of Medicine at UCV between 1937 and 1962. In 1961, he and his team developed a program to prepare staff for tuberculosis care in medically underserved and rural areas. It was considered a model for other countries by the World Health Organization, the Pan American Health Organization, and the Latin American Organization of Anti-Tuberculosis Associations.

BALLET. Although in Europe ballet was related to opera, the foreign companies that came to Venezuela to perform shows in the late 19th century did not use dancing in their presentations. It wasn't until 1915, when the *Gioconda* was presented at the Caracas Municipal **Theater**, that in the dancing composition called “La danza de las horas” ballet was first presented in the country. Two years later, the international ballerina Anna Pavlona premiered *Gaviota Gutiérrez* by **Pedro Elías Gutiérrez**. In 1945, the first children's ballet ensemble was founded by Steffy Stähl along with Pedro Antonio Ríos Reyna for musical direction, which in 1947 presented Tchaikovsky's *Nutcracker*. The same year, Henry Thompson, a member of the Coronel de Basil's ballet company, decided to settle down in Venezuela. He established ballet at the Liceo **Andrés Bello** of Caracas. In 1947, the National School

of Ballet was founded, the first such school legally constituted in Venezuela. From its classes came an outstanding generation of dancers, including Vicente Nebrada, Zhandra Rodríguez, and Margot Contreras, among others. The school lasted until 1957 under the direction of Nena Coronil. There was also a nationalist ballet releasing works like *Guaicaipuro* (1952) by María Luisa Escobar and *Tamanaco* by Manuel Rodríguez Cárdenas. In the 1970s, there was an improvement of the quality of ballet. One example was the founding of the Ballet Internacional de Caracas by Zhandra Rodríguez and Vicente Nebrada. In the course of that century and in the beginning of the 21st, some of these institutions closed, but many more were developed, such as the Ballet Metropolitano, directed by Keyla Ermecheo; the Ballet Clásico, directed by Nina Novak; and the Ballet Nuevo Mundo de Caracas, directed by Zhandra Rodríguez and Dale Talley.

BANKS. The origins of these institutions are found after the **War of Independence**, when beginning in 1825 several projects were started without showing positive results. Around the 1830s, **commercial houses** started operations, which included, in fact, banking procedures. The first true bank to be established was the Banco Colonial Británico in 1839. In 1841, the Banco Nacional was born, with main offices in **Caracas** and several agencies in the province. Its objective was to support the government in everything related to tax collection. Liberal opposition in the press heavily attacked it. In 1848, both Banco Colonial and Banco Nacional ceased operating. In 1861, Banco de Venezuela was founded, but it was liquidated in 1862. Between 1862 and 1863, Banco Caracas operated but ceased by the end of the **Federal War**. In 1864, the new federal government authorized operations for Banco de Londres y Venezuela, by mediation of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, which ceased operations in 1867. Once Guzmán ascended to power, he supported banking activity as part of the economic policy of **Liberalismo Amarillo**. In this way, the Compañía de Crédito was founded, which at the moment of its liquidation in 1876 paved the way for the new Banco Caracas. In 1884, **Manuel Antonio Matos** founded the Banco Comercial de Venezuela. In 1890, this bank was renamed Banco de Venezuela, lasting until today. During this period, other banks were founded, such as the Banco de Maracaibo and Banco de Carabobo. The major shareholders of these institutions were often owners and managers of commercial houses. Their main objective was to provide credit to the central government, which resulted in conflicts with it. During the 20th century, there was a close relationship between the **oil** industry and the arrival of foreign banks, such as First City Bank of New York and Royal Bank of Canada. During the 1920s and 1930s, local banks were founded such as Banco Venezolano de Crédito, Banco Agrícola y Pecuário, Banco Obrero,

and Banco Mercantil y Agrícola, expanding rapidly across the country. Between the 1940s and the 1960s, other institutions started operations, such as Banco Provincial, Banco Industrial de Venezuela, Banco Latino, and Banco del Caribe. In 1940, the Central Bank of Venezuela opened. Nevertheless, banking regulation continued to be weak, despite the scale the banking sector achieved as the oil-based **economy** continued growing. Weak regulation, combined with inadequate management and practices, led in the 1990s to a major financial crisis that wiped out half of the banking sector so that the state had to take the ownership of failed banks. This led to a second wave of arrival of foreign banks, acquiring state banks or buying stakes in private ones. As well, other banks, such as Banesco, ascended. During the **Bolivarian Revolution**, the banking sector has weakened, and several key institutions were taken over by the government. *See also* ESCOTET, JUAN CARLOS; TINOCO, PEDRO R.; VOLLMER HERRERA, GUSTAVO JULIO.

BARALT, RAFAEL MARÍA (Maracaibo, 1810–Madrid, Spain, 1860). Historian, **journalist**, philologist, and poet. Though he dabbled in military life at first, letters granted him a prominent place and recognition nationally and internationally. He grew up in the context of the independence period and at a very young age entered the patriot army. He participated in events such as the **Maracaibo Lake Naval Battle**. He later studied Latin and philosophy at the University of Bogotá, earning a bachelor's degree. Back in Venezuela, he became an official in the Post Office Department of **Zulia** as well as secretary of **Santiago Mariño** during the **Campana de Oriente**. Settled later in **Caracas**, he started relationships with personalities in the circles of Venezuelan intellectuals. He began to show his prose in several Venezuelan publications. During the decade of the 1830s, his profile as a historian began to gain strength through the research and compilation of related documentation. He collaborated on the project *Atlas y Resumen de la geografía de Venezuela* (Atlas and Summary of the Geography of Venezuela) (1841), directed by **Agustín Codazzi**, as well as on the research, made in alliance with **Ramón Díaz Sánchez**, that resulted in 1841 in the publication of *Resumen de la Historia de Venezuela* (Summary of the History of Venezuela). These projects involved trips and tours to Europe and led him to reside in Spain. In that country, he expanded his career with the publication of articles and poetry and studies focused on the Spanish language. Such work undoubtedly determined the place he occupied as a member of the Royal Spanish Academy in 1853, the first Latin American to occupy that position. Finally, after being appointed by the Dominican Republic government as minister plenipotentiary, his private correspondence was exposed and he faced prosecution, from which he came out redeemed. He died shortly after due to health complications.

BARCELONA (CITY). Capital of **Anzoátegui State** and one of the cities with the longest continuity in the country. It was founded in 1638 by **Joan Orpí** (Juan de Orpín) and first called New Barcelona of San Cristóbal of Cumanagoto. It has a long coast, making it a place of **economic** relevance for international trade. The city stands out for its colonial areas, the **Armando Reverón** School of Plastic Arts, the Eastern Theater Festival, the Neverí Metropolitan National Park, and thermal waters.

BARCELONA (PROVINCE). Also called the province of New Barcelona, this territory was established in 1637 by **Joan Orpí** (Juan de Orpín) after the conquest of the Cumanagotos tribe, with the name of the province of New Catalonia. Annexed to the province of **Cumaná**, it reappeared in 1810 when the newly created Barcelona junta decided to reinstitute the province. In 1864, it became Barcelona State, renamed in 1909 **Anzoátegui State**.

BARINAS (PROVINCE). Also called the command of Barinas. Created in 1786, it was one of the territories into which Venezuelan territory was divided during the colonial period. With high **economic** relevance, it produced cattle, **cocoa**, indigo, cotton, and **coffee**, although its most important product was “Varinas” **tobacco**. Highly touted in global markets, the tobacco made the province one of the wealthiest in Venezuela. In 1811, it joined the independence movement. In 1821, during **Gran Colombia**, the province of Barinas became part of the Venezuelan Department. In 1864, it was renamed Zamora State as a tribute to the **Federal War** leader General **Ezequiel Zamora**. In 1936, its original name was restored, becoming **Barinas State**.

BARINAS (STATE). Located in the southwest of the country, it has an area of 35,000 square kilometers (8.34 percent of the country) and a **population** of 816,264 (2011 census, 2.81 percent of the country). Its capital is the city of Barinas. The state has 12 municipalities (Barinas, Bolívar, Cruz Paredes, Obispos, Pedraza, and Sosa, among others) and 52 parishes. The state exhibits two different landscapes: the **Andean** system (mountain) and the **llanos** (plains). It had an Indian population of 848 in the 2001 census (0.18 percent of the country). The state was created in 1786 as **Barinas Province**, and in 1864 it was changed to a state. Barinas has great potential with a variety of resources, such as **agriculture**, fishing, forestry, and **oil** and gas industries. However, the main economic activities since the colonial era have been **tobacco**, **coffee**, cotton, and cattle raising.

BARQUISIMETO (CITY). Located in the northwest of the country, it is the capital of **Lara State**, with a **population** of 1,242,351. Juan Villegas

founded it in 1552 under the name Nueva Segovia de Barquisimeto. During the independence process, it became an important place for the patriot cause. It has **economic** development in industry and trade, having great **agriculture** due to fertile soil. Industries include metal machining, agroindustry, printing, textile elaboration, and apparel production. It is known as “the musical capital of Venezuela” because of its folk and modern expressions.

BARRANQUILLA PLAN. In 1931, a group of exiled **Generación del 28** leaders issued a programmatic statement considered the first Venezuelan political plan. It listed the reforms needed for government: civilian control, full civil liberties, legislation protecting the working class, confiscation of the property of **Juan Vicente Gómez** and his family and associates, and renegotiation of **oil concessions**, among others measures. Edited by **Rómulo Betancourt** and signed, among others, by **Raúl Leoni**, it was attacked by communists as diverging too far from Marxist orthodoxy.

BASEBALL. It is considered the national sport of Venezuela. The origins of baseball in the country go back to 1885, when some students who returned from the **United States** formed a baseball team called Caracas BBC. Among them were the Franklin brothers, Amenorodo, Emilio, Gustavo, and Augusto. The first game took place on 23 May 1895, between red and blue teams. In the beginning of the 20th century, there were some tournaments that boosted the sport, such as the first official championship created by the Federación Venezolana de Béisbol in 1927 and the 1941 Baseball World Cup, won by Venezuela against **Cuba**. In 1946, the Liga Venezolano de Béisbol Profesional (LVBP) was founded by Juan Antonio Yáñez, Carlos Lavaud, Luis Pimentel, and Juan Reggetti, which became the institution that promoted the activity on a national scale. In the beginning, there were only four teams—Cervecería **Caracas**, Sabios del Vargas, Patriotas de Venezuela, and Magallanes—but with time some of them would change names (Navegantes del Magallanes, Leones del Caracas) and some would disappear. Around the 1960s, several clubs appeared that still prevail in the national league: Tiburones de La Guaira (1962), Tigres de **Aragua** (1965), Cardenales de **Lara** (1965), and Águilas del **Zulia** (1969). This was a good development for the the sport because, by settling in many places around Venezuela, they contributed to spreading the game, as did **television**. In both the 1980s and the 1990s, two other teams appeared: Caribes de **Oriente** (1987, now called Caribes de **Anzoátegui**) and Petroleros de Cabimas (1991, but repeatedly changed to Pastora de Occidente, Pastora de Los **Llanos**, and since 2007, Bravos de **Margarita**). This expansion forced the LVBP to restructure into two divisions: Oriental (Leones, Caribes, Tiburones, and Navegantes) and

Occidental (Tigres, Petroleros, Cardenales, and Águilas), although in 2007 these were eliminated. The season begins in early October and finishes in late January. Venezuela's is one of the most important leagues of the Americas. Some of its best players are even in the U.S. Baseball Hall of Fame, such as shortstop Luis Aparicio (1989). Some of these players have achieved unusual triumphs, such as Miguel Cabrera, who in 2012 obtained the Triple Crown, a record that had not been seen since 1967. After the Dominican Republic, Venezuela has the second most foreign players in Major League Baseball in the United States (in 2016, 65 Venezuelans played in the major league).

BASTIDAS, RODRIGO DE “EL VIEJO” (?–Santiago, Cuba, 1527). Explorer and conqueror. In 1500, he embarked on a journey to practice *rescate* (bartering with the **indigenous** people) in the West Indies. He was joined by **Juan de la Cosa** and Vasco Núñez de Balboa. On this voyage, they went across the entire coast of Venezuela, from Boca de Sierpe in Paria (**Sucre State**) to the Gulf of Coquivacoa, in the current **Gulf of Venezuela**. From this moment, the territory of Venezuela entered into the geographical knowledge of the Spanish. Bastidas then continued all the way along the present Colombian coast to Panama, being the first European to follow this path. He also gave the name **Tierra Firme** (Mainland) to the territory from the coast of Paria to Panama, which is how it would be known during the colonial period. This voyage was also an **economic** success. In 1525, he founded Santa Marta, the first city established by the Spanish in present-day **Colombia**.

BASTIDAS, RODRIGO “EL JOVEN” (Seville, Spain, c. 1498–Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, c. 1570). First bishop of Venezuela. Known as “the Younger” to differentiate him from his father, the conqueror and discoverer. When the diocese of Venezuela was founded in **Coro**, he was designated to occupy it. He found himself in the middle of an important crisis of the government of the **Welsers**, so he had to take charge of the governance of the province, acting as bishop and governor until 1542, when he was promoted to bishop of Puerto Rico.

BEAUPERTHUY, LUIS DANIEL (Guadeloupe Island, 1807–Bartica, Guyana, 1871). Doctor and researcher. He demonstrated that mosquitoes were the real transmitters of yellow fever and malaria. In 1837, he graduated in **medicine** in Paris. In 1853, during a yellow fever epidemic in **Cumaná**, he concluded that a person not stung by mosquitoes did not get sick. So he started preventing the illness by using mosquito nets. He also created new methods for treating leprosy in an experimental hospital on Kaow Island, located in the **Essequibo Territory**.

BEJARANO SISTERS. In **Caracas**, during the final colonial days, the *pardo* sisters Magdalena, Eduvigis, and Belén Bejarano became famous for preparing a cake (called *Bejarana* after their name) cooked with roasted cornmeal, mashed plantain, brown sugar, and sesame seeds. As the cake became popular, the ladies accumulated enough money to buy the right to be treated as white people, based on the royal charter “Gracias al Sacar.” The royal decree issued by King Charles IV read, “Let the Bejarano Sisters be treated as white although they are black.” The upper *mantuano* white *creole* social class rejected the royal order, considering it contrary to their social prerogatives.

BELLO, ANDRÉS (Caracas, 1781–Santiago, Chile, 1865). Poet, legislator, philosopher, literary critic, and philologist. Known as the intellectual liberator of Latin America, he is considered the most important Latin American humanist of the 19th century, and his works have been critical to building Latin American humanism. His life and intellectual production can be classified into three main periods. Each of them represents a specific mark in his development as a thinker.

The first period was spent in **Caracas** (1781–1810), where he got a solid humanistic **education** through lectures on the golden century of Spanish **literature** and on languages, including English, French, and Latin, at the Mercedarian Convent and at the **university**. In 1800, he joined **Alexander von Humboldt** in climbing the **Ávila Mountain** summit. He also taught courses to the young **Simón Bolívar**. He regularly visited social gatherings at the Marquis of Ustáriz’s mansion, which were characterized by literary debates. By that time he wrote *Resumen de la historia de Venezuela*, poems like “A un samán” and “A la Victoria de Bailén,” and the dramas *Venezuela consolada* and *España restaurada*. From 1808, he was a writer at the *Gazeta de Caracas* during the Spanish Crown period.

The second period took place in London (1810–1829), where he arrived on a diplomatic mission along with Bolívar and Luis López Méndez with orders of the **Caracas Supreme Junta**. There, among serious **economic** difficulties, he extended his field of knowledge to philology, the historical study of the Spanish language, and mineralogy, among other topics. He worked in several Latin American legations, as a language teacher, and even served as secretary to James Mill. He did not, however, abandon his artistic interests, publishing in the *Biblioteca Americana* (1823) and *El Repertorio Americano* (1826–1827), both magazines edited by him, two of the most important poems of Latin American literature: “Alocución a la poesía” (1823) and “La agricultura de la zona torrida” (1826).

His stay in Chile (1829–1865) comprised his last period. It was the most fruitful of all. He had several public responsibilities, such as finance minister

and senator, and in 1843 he became the first rector of the University of Chile. Concerned for the relationships between the new Latin American states, in 1832 he published *Los principios de derecho de gentes*. But this period's most important works are his *Gramática castellana destinada al uso de los Americanos* (1847) and the Chilean Civil **Code** (1855). The *Gramática* analyzed the Spanish language by moving out of the ancient models of dead languages to use modern ones, and it was purchased throughout Latin America. The civil code influenced the legislations of other states like Ecuador, Honduras, **Colombia**, and Panama, to the point of being judged the most important code of the 19th century on the continent. Several books were written by Bello with pedagogical purposes, such as *Cosmografía o descripción del Universo* (1848) and *Historia de la literatura* (1850), along with many articles in the **newspaper** *El Araucano*. The vast work of Bello shows the huge relevance he had as a man who stimulated institutions that contributed to the establishing of the civilization of Spanish America.

BENACERRAF, BARUJ (Caracas, 1920–Boston, United States, 2011). Physician, immunologist, and winner of a Noble Prize for Medicine (1980). Born in **Caracas** in a Sephardic Jewish family, at the age of five he moved with his family to Paris. When the Second World War broke out, they returned to Venezuela, but Benacerraf went to the **United States** to study medicine. After graduating from the Medical College of Virginia, in 1945 he enlisted in the U.S. Army. Until 1948, he served in the military medical service, and then he started a long and fruitful career as a researcher at several institutions, including New York University and Harvard University. He obtained his BS at Columbia University, although he was refused entry to its School of **Medicine** due to his national and ethnic origins. Because of his discovery of a complex of genes that encodes important protein molecules in the immune system, he was awarded the Nobel Prize along with Jean Dausset and George Davis Snell. In 1998, he published his autobiography, *From Caracas to Stockholm: A Life in Medical Science*.

BENACERRAF, MARGOT (Caracas, 1926–). Film director. In 1959, she was awarded at the Cannes Film Festival for her documentary *Araya*, considered a classic piece of Venezuelan cinema. Since then, she has been actively involved in the promotion and study of the cinematographic **arts** in Venezuela.

BERMÚDEZ, JOSÉ FRANCISCO (San José de Aerocuar, 1782–Cumaná, 1831). Soldier and independence leader. In 1813, he joined **Santiago Mariño** in the **Campaña de Oriente**. In 1817, after participating in the siege

of Angostura (later **Ciudad Bolívar**), he was appointed commander of the province of **Cumaná** by **Simón Bolívar**. In 1821, he fulfilled the mission to distract the royalists in **Caracas** during the campaign of **Carabobo**, after which he was promoted to the rank of general-in-chief. He was immediately sent to liberate Cumaná. In 1823, under the orders of **José Antonio Páez**, he was part of the **Assault of Puerto Cabello**. Then he was promoted as mayor and commander of the department of the **Orinoco**. He was involved in other actions of a military nature until his retirement in 1830.

BERRÍO, ANTONIO DE (Segovia, Spain, c. 1527–Santo Tomé de Guayana, 1597). Explorer and conquistador. Married to the daughter of the founder of Bogotá, Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada, he inherited a capitulation that gave him the right to discover the mythical city of **El Dorado**. Between 1584 and his death, he made four expeditions to what is now known as **Guayana**, searching for the fantastic wealth that according to myth lay in that city. Naturally, they did not find El Dorado, but they discovered numerous rivers and proof that the Orinoco serves as a river route to the Atlantic Ocean. He also founded the cities of San José de Oruña in **Trinidad** and Santo Tomé de Guayana, next to the **Orinoco River**. In 1595, **Walter Raleigh**, who was also looking for El Dorado, captured him. He was released a short time later and died in Santo Tomé when the city was starting to be abandoned for lack of supplies.

BETANCOURT, RÓMULO (Guatire, 1908–New York, United States, 1981). Politician and president of Venezuela from 1945 to 1948 and 1959 to 1964, one of the most important political figures in Latin American history in the 20th century. Founder of the **Acción Democrática (AD) political party**, he is known as the father of democracy in Venezuela and the creator of a political thought with large influence in contemporary Venezuela.

He was born in Guatire in 1908, where he spent his childhood. His life changed when in 1919 his family moved to **Caracas**. He enrolled at an institution that had a critical influence on a whole generation of young men, the Liceo Caracas. Once he finished his studies there, he pursued law at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. He was one of the leaders of **Generación del 28**, the movement of young students who protested against **Juan Vicente Gómez's** regime in 1928. He was jailed but liberated within a few months and sent into exile. Costa Rica, **Colombia**, and the Dominican Republic were some of the countries in which he stayed, crafting ideas and plans to oust the dictatorship in Venezuela. From this experience, the **Barranquilla Plan** was created, along with political experiments that preceded AD: Asociación Revolucionaria de Izquierda (ARDI), Organización Venezolana (ORVE),

and Partido Democrático Nacional (PDN). In Costa Rica, he was part of the Communist Party, departing from communist ideology shortly after. Even though he later became an anticommunist, Marxism was always present in his ideas.

In 1936, after Gómez passed away, Betancourt and other young leaders returned to Venezuela, organizing new parties and participating in the intense political activity. In 1937, when the government captured and expelled numerous leaders considered communists, Betancourt was able to stay in Venezuela clandestinely for two years until he started a second exile in Chile. During this period, he organized PDN, which in 1941 was legalized as Acción Democrática. When young military officers decided to oust president **Isaías Medina Angarita**, they invited AD into the movement. After the military coup of **October 18, 1945**, Betancourt was appointed president of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno**. This board started what Betancourt and his party called the Democratic Revolution, but it is remembered in history as the **Trienio Adeco**, initiating large social reforms and enacting the universal vote. In 1948, he handed presidential power to the first president elected by universal vote, **Rómulo Gallegos**. That year, he traveled to Bogotá to participate in the ninth Pan-American Conference, being one of the founders of the **Organization of American States (OAS)** and witnessing the *Bogotazo*.

In 1948, after the military coup against Gallegos, Betancourt started his third exile. This time, he tried to organize a democratic front in the Caribbean to fight dictatorships across the region. In 1951, he arranged with Carlos Prío Socarrás in Havana the Conference Pro-Democracy and Freedom. In 1952, he was forced to move again to Costa Rica after the coup against Prío Socarrás. In 1956, he published in Mexico his most important work, *Venezuela, política y petróleo*. Afterward he traveled to the **United States** to look for support for his cause and to establish contact with two other important exiled democratic leaders, **Jóvito Villalba** and **Rafael Caldera**. With them he agreed to coordinate efforts in what was known as the New York Pact. When **Marcos Pérez Jiménez's** dictatorship finally ended on **January 23, 1958**, he returned to the country. As candidate for AD for the elections of December 1958, in October he signed with Caldera and Villalba the **Pacto de Puntofijo**, an agreement to warrant respect of electoral results and to establish a government of national unity.

From 1959 to 1964, he led his second administration. It was a turbulent period due to left- and right-wing conspiracies that tried to end the incipient democracy. He had to face three military insurrections (*Barcelonazo*, *Carupanazo*, and *Porteñazo*) and an assassination attempt in 1960 plotted by Dominican dictator Rafael Leonidas Trujillo. In 1962, the *lucha armada* (armed struggle) started, with the formation of urban and rural communist

guerrilla groups who were mostly inspired, trained, and armed by **Cuba**. In spite of all the above, he was able to move forward with measures like the foundation of OPEC (1960), the **Corporación Venezolana de Guayana** (1960), the **Corporación Venezolana de Petróleo** (1960), and the **Agrarian Reform** (1960), along with a large number of infrastructure projects such as the **Maracaibo Bridge**. At the beginning of his period, he also had to face an **economic** crisis and a devaluation of the **bolívar (currency)**, mostly offset by 1964. In international terms, he established the Betancourt Doctrine for the defense of democracy, which banned diplomatic relationships with dictatorships. The Cuban intervention in Venezuela made him one of the most important opponents of Fidel Castro in the hemisphere. In 1963, he faced a final challenge, a guerrilla plan to sabotage the presidential election of that year. Nevertheless, it was thwarted, and elections were held peacefully, resulting in AD candidate **Raúl Leoni**'s victory. In order not to interfere with democratic institutions and to recover from the stress of his administration, he retired overseas for a decade, mostly in Bern, Switzerland. In 1972, he returned to Venezuela, rejecting the possibility of being a candidate for the second time, and retired gradually from politics. A lifetime senator, by the end of the 1970s he started to criticize the route Venezuela was taking. His last relevant incursion in politics was to endorse the candidacy of Luis Piñerúa Ordaz in 1978.

He got married twice, first to a teacher and communist militant from Costa Rica, Carmen Valverde, with whom he had a daughter, Virginia Betancourt; then with the medic Renée Hartmann. His legacy is preserved in the Fundación Rómulo Betancourt, where his vast archive is properly guarded.

BIBLIOTECA AYACUCHO. Established in 1974 and financed by the Venezuelan state, it is one of the most prestigious publishing houses in Latin America, dedicated to printing classics and the most representative exponents of Latin American **literature** and other contemporary texts. Created in honor of the 150th anniversary of the Battle of Ayacucho in Peru, it has printed more than 250 titles in its various collections.

BIENIO (BIENNIUM) (1886–1888). Name given to the last presidential term of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, between 1886 and 1888. The Constitution of 1874, promoted by Guzmán Blanco, reduced the presidential tenure to two years as a way to satisfy the aspirations of all political leaders (or **caudillos**) and to prevent a long-term consolidation of power. After finishing the **Quinquenio**, Guzmán Blanco handed the presidency to **Joaquín Crespo** for a two year period and departed to Europe. At the end of his tenure, Crespo organized La Aclamación (The Acclamation), a movement to put Guzmán Blanco in power for the third time. One of the most important reasons for request-

ing Guzmán Blanco's return was the fragile **economic** situation facing the country at that time. During the Bienio, Venezuela broke diplomatic relations with Great Britain due to the invasion of the **Essequibo Territory** by citizens of British Guiana. Guzmán Blanco departed to Europe without finishing his term, leaving the presidency in the hands of General Hermógenes López. *See also* LIBERALISMO AMARILLO.

BLANCO, ANDRÉS ELOY (Cumaná, 1896–Mexico City, Mexico, 1955). Poet and politician. In 1918, he graduated in law from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. His early artistic production gave him international notoriety when in 1923 he won a poetic competition promoted by the Royal Spanish Academy of Language with his poem "Canto a España." His political beliefs made him participate in the **Generación del 28** student protests against the government of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, which put him in prison until 1935. From this experience, he wrote the books *Barco de piedra* (1937) and *Baedeker 2000* (1938). In 1941, he cofounded the party **Acción Democrática** along with **Rómulo Betancourt** and **Rómulo Gallegos**, among others. After that, his activity as a public man was prolific: in 1945 deputy in representation of **Distrito Federal**, between 1946 and 1947 president of the National Constituent Assembly, and in 1948 minister of foreign affairs during Gallegos's administration. The coup d'état of 1948 sent him into exile in **Cuba** and Mexico, where he died. In the eyes of critics, Blanco has passed into **literary** history as a member of the so-called Generación del 18, a group of poets that, like **José Antonio Ramos Sucre**, Fernando Paz Castillo, and Jacinto Fombona Pachano, surpassed modernist rhetoric and renewed the national poetic aesthetic. The employing of popular verse and the development of motifs from the popular tradition characterize his work *Poda* (1934) and later ones. He was also cofounder of *El Morrocoy azul*, one of the most important humorous weeklies of Venezuela. Since 1981, his remains have rested at the **National Pantheon**.

BLANCO, EDUARDO (Caracas, 1838–Caracas, 1912). Writer, soldier, and politician. In 1861 he became aide-de-camp to General **José Antonio Páez** until 1863, when he retired from military service. Then he spent time traveling through Europe, returning to Venezuela in 1870. By then he had started his artistic production, in which can be highlighted *Venezuela heroica* (1881), the best example of romantic historiography, and *Zárate* (1882), for some critics the first national novel. He also held public office during **Cipriano Castro's** administration.

BLANCO, HUGO (Caracas, 1940–Caracas, 2015). **Musician**, composer, and arranger. In 1960, he began his first recordings. By that time he met

Simón Díaz, helping him produce his first records. He is widely known for composing the famous songs “Moliendo Café” (1960) and “El burrito Saba-nero” (1972), two classics of Latin American music played throughout the world.

BLANCO, JOSÉ FÉLIX (Caracas, 1782–Caracas, 1872). Priest, soldier, and historian. In 1795, he began studies at the Seminary of Caracas and in 1809 obtained a license as a priest. Following **April 19, 1810**, he joined the independence struggle, first as a chaplain and then as a fighter in the Republican Army and with administrative tasks. He served under the orders of **Marqués del Toro, Francisco de Miranda, José Félix Ribas, Santiago Mariño, Simón Bolívar, José Antonio Páez, Manuel Piar, and Luis Brión**. In 1826, during **La Cosiata**, he collaborated with Bolívar in preparing troops to quell the insubordination. He was named in 1827 governor of **Barinas** and in 1830 military commander of the valleys of Cúcuta. In 1833, the Vatican ordered his secularization. In 1835, as a commander of arms of the province of **Maracaibo**, he fought with the forces of the **Revolución de las Reformas**. In 1844, he was nominated for vice president of the nation and in 1846 to the presidency, not being elected. In 1847, he was secretary of finance and foreign affairs. From 1855, along with Ramón Azpurua, he devoted himself to collecting documents regarding the history of Venezuela, taking as a starting point the collections of **Cristóbal Mendoza** and **Francisco Javier Yanes**. Between 1875 and 1877, he published in 14 volumes *Documentos para la historia de la vida pública del Libertador* (Documents for the History of the Public Life of the Liberator). In 1863, after publicly forswearing masonry, in which he reached the 33rd degree, the Vatican granted his rehabilitation as a priest. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

BLANCO FOMBONA, RUFINO (Caracas, 1874–Buenos Aires, Argentina, 1944). Writer, editor, poet, diplomat, and politician. A member of the generation of modernist writers linked with *El Cojo Ilustrado* magazine, after his rupture with **Juan Vicente Gómez**, he lived in exile for 26 years (1910–1936). A tenacious opponent of the dictatorship, Blanco Fombona published pamphlets and articles against Gómez. He also wrote novels and monographs, such as *El hombre de hierro* (1907), *Cantos de la prisión y del destierro* (1911), *Grandes escritores de América* (1917), *El conquistador español del siglo XVI* (1920), *El modernismo y los poetas modernistas* (1929), *Bolívar y la guerra a muerte* (1942), *Mocedades de Bolívar* (1942), and *El espíritu de Bolívar: ensayo de interpretación psicológica* (1943). By 1916, he founded in Spain Editorial América, which published a long list of classic Latin American books. In 1925, he was nominated for the Nobel Prize for Literature. When the republic was established in Spain, he was appointed

governor of Almería (1932) and Navarra (1933). Shortly after, when Gómez died in 1935, he returned to Venezuela, where he served as governor of **Miranda State** and ambassador in Uruguay. He was a brother of the politician and **journalist** Horacio Blanco Fombona (1889–1948).

BLOQUEO DE 1902. *See* VENEZUELAN CRISIS OF 1902.

BLOWOUT OF OIL. *See* REVENTÓN DEL BARROSOS 2.

BOLÍVAR (CURRENCY). The national currency. Its origins go back to 1879, during **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**'s administration, when he created the silver bolívar (by that time, there was also a golden one) and prohibited the circulation of foreign coins inside the country. This currency substituted the venezolano, created in 1872. Five bolívars was the equivalent of a peso or a dollar, an exchange rate that was maintained without significant changes until the 1930s, during which the currency strengthened to three bolívars per dollar. For most of the 20th century, the bolívar was one of the most stable currencies in the world, even considered in the 1950s as strong as the U.S. dollar. The departure from the **gold** standard, the inflationary process that started in the 1970s, the decline of **oil** prices in the early 1980s, and the great amount of **external debt** contracted by the nation undermined confidence in the **economy** and triggered a crisis in the currency account balance. All this led to a devaluation in February 1983, known as **Viernes Negro** (Black Friday). Between 1983 and 2008, the devaluation was of 49,860 percent (2,144 Bs./USD vs. 4.3 Bs./USD). In 2008, there was a monetary reform, the bolívar fuerte, which removed three zeros from the currency. Nevertheless, it did not involve any structural economic measures, so monetary liquidity continued growing substantially. During this period, the new bolívar has experienced a devaluation of 29,900 percent (643 Bs./USD vs. 2.144 Bs./USD).

BOLÍVAR (STATE). Located in the southeast of the country, its capital is **Ciudad Bolívar**. It has an area of 238,800 square kilometers (26 percent of the country) and a **population** of 1,410,946 (2011 census, 4.87 percent of the country). It has 11 municipalities (Caroní, Sedenno, El Cayao, **Gran Sabana**, and Heres, among others) and 44 parishes. Its territory is part of the *macizo guayanés*, one of the most ancient geological formations in the world (3,100 million years old). Due to its diverse vegetation, fauna, and landscape, including its **Tepuy** Mountains, Bolívar State hosts important ecotourist activities. The **Angel Falls** and Canaima National Park, in the Gran Sabana region, are important tourist areas. The state produces a large amount of the country's electric power at the **Guri Dam** (Central Hidroeléctrica Simón Bolívar) due

to the great volume of water flowing through the Caroní River. Also, the **Orinoco River** runs across its lands. Other **economic** activities include cattle raising and fishing, along with **agriculture** activities such as corn, rice, sugarcane, and banana crops. Bolívar State has diverse **mining** activities due to its mineral resources, including **iron**, **gold**, bauxite, diamonds, and aluminum, and basic steel and metallurgical industries. The state has the majority of the **aboriginal** tribes inhabiting the country, with ethnicities such as Pemon, Ennepa, Karinna, Piaroa, Yekuna, Sonema, Guajiro, and Guarao. The native population is 49,791 (2001 census). During colonial years, this place was the reputed home of **El Dorado**, bringing many explorers in the hopes of finding the mythic city. In the independence period, it was an important logistical prize, with the patriots taking control of the region and gaining weapons, matériel, and other resources that helped sustain the republic.

BOLÍVAR, SIMÓN (Caracas, 1783–Santa Marta, Colombia, 1830). Politician and military and independence leader. Known as El Libertador, he is the greatest hero of Venezuela and one of the most important persons of the Bolivarian countries, which attribute to his work the founding of their independence: **Colombia**, Ecuador, Bolivia, Panama, and Peru. He was the founding president and dictator of **Gran Colombia** (1819–1830). Earlier he had been dictator (1814) and supreme chief of Venezuela (1816–1819). He was also dictator of Peru (1824–1827). His complete name was Simón José Antonio de la Santísima Trinidad Bolívar Palacios y Blanco. His parents were María de la Concepción Palacios y Blanco and **Juan Vicente Bolívar y Ponte**. However, as a child he lost his father and mother. As a result, young Simón moved, by express order of the will of his mother, to the house of his grandfather, Don Feliciano Palacios y Sojo, who was sick and very old. Bolívar's grandfather ordered that after his death, the young child should be taken into custody by Don Carlos Palacios, an uncle of Simón. Still young, he went into the Public School (First Letters) administered by the city hall of **Caracas**, where he met the man who would be his preceptor and teacher during his youth, **Simón Rodríguez**.

In 1797, Bolívar complemented this first phase of training with his formal acceptance into the White Militia Battalion of **Aragua**, of which his father had been colonel years earlier. In order to continue his studies, he sailed for the first time to the Iberian Peninsula in 1799. He returned to Venezuela in 1802, already married to **María Teresa Rodríguez del Toro**, who died in 1803 of malaria. After this event, Bolívar decided to sail to Europe in 1804. He went through Madrid and Paris, where he got in touch with personalities like **Alexander von Humboldt** and Aimée Bonpland. He also attended several political events, such as the imperial coronation of Napoleon. Also, with

Simón Rodríguez, he traveled on foot along the Italian peninsula, visited cities like Venice and Rome, and later made his historic **Oath of Monte Sacro** on the Palatine Hill. By 1806, and after a brief stopover in the **United States**, he returned to Venezuela.

After the establishment of the **Caracas Supreme Junta** of 1810, its authorities commissioned Bolívar, **Andrés Bello**, and Luís López Méndez with the diplomatic task of reporting on what happened in the country and serving as liaisons with the government of Great Britain. Bolívar also invited **Francisco de Miranda** to return to Venezuela. Once in the country, Miranda appointed Bolívar commander of the Puerto Cabello Fort. When the garrison revolted in favor of the king, Bolívar decided to retire to Caracas, where he learned of the **Capitulation of San Mateo**. He went into exile on Curaçao and began his journey to Nueva Granada, from where he initiated in 1813 the **Campaña Admirable** (1813), entering Caracas in August of that year. During this campaign, in **Mérida** and later in Caracas, he was awarded the title of Libertador. Conventionally, historiography calls this stage the **Second Republic**. The following year, Bolívar faced a popular rebellion led by **José Tomás Boves**, who defeated the patriots, ending the second republican effort. Again in exile, he sought support in England. He wrote the **Jamaica Letter**, in which he presented his thoughts about Spanish America. Then, invited by President Alexandre Pétion, he traveled to Haiti. There, after an assembly of civilians and soldiers also exiled for their independence ideas, he took the role of supreme head. Pétion helped him with money and supplies with one condition: he should free all the **slaves** who participated with weapons in the independence cause. He initiated the **Los Cayos Expeditions** (1816), defeated in the center of the country, while in the **Oriente** (eastern part of Venezuela) some victories were achieved, providing control of the territory. He returned to Haiti, where he presented his results, to return shortly after to open a battlefield in **Angostura** and the lower **Orinoco River** region.

The triumph of the patriot leader **Manuel Carlos Piar** at the Battle of **San Félix** (1817) made easy the besieging and taking of the city of Angostura and the gaining of effective control over the Orinoco River. By 1818, he started operations in the **llanos** (plains) territory, an important geopolitical space, where he met with **José Antonio Páez**, a prominent leader of the region. The campaign did not return any positive results. In 1819, Bolívar made the call for a new meeting of the **Angostura Congress**, with representatives of Venezuela and Nueva Granada. That congress created the Republic of Colombia, conventionally known as **Gran Colombia**, with the union of the two countries. Also that year he began the Campaign of Nueva Granada. After the victory of the Battle of Boyacá, he managed to take Bogotá. In 1820, as the war situation stalled, patriots and royalists signed the **Trujillo Agreements**,

an armistice to regulate the war. The following year, once the commitment was broken, the **Carabobo Battle** (1821) left the center of Venezuela free to become part of Gran Colombia.

In 1822, he occupied Guayaquil, also incorporating its territory into Gran Colombia. This created friction with Peru and led to a meeting with José de San Martín, Peru's protector. The event is known as the Interview of Guayaquil. After this event, he decided to initiate the release of Quito. He sent ahead to **Antonio José de Sucre**, who in a short campaign defeated the Spanish Army at the Battle of Pichincha (1822). The Colombian Congress authorized Bolívar to continue through the rest of Peru since some republicans had invited him to do so. In 1823, Bolívar prepared the Peru campaign and reorganized the administrative status of the southern regions. In 1824, operations on the Peruvian coast and in the highlands were opened, with Bolívar taking the coast and Sucre delegated the mountains. After a rift with the Colombian Congress, Sucre became the one who entered the Battle of Ayacucho (1824), considered the last great battle in South America. In 1825, the provinces of Upper Peru decided to organize as the independent Republic of Peru and Río de la Plata, calling itself the Republic of Bolívar and later renamed Bolivia. He began to write the constitution for the new country, and on behalf of the members of that region, he incorporated it as part of the republic, managing to obtain the recognition by the Congress of Peru. By Bolívar's initiative, the Congreso Anfictionico de Panamá (1826) met and proposed the creation of a continental alliance, constituting a model for integrationists in the 20th century.

Later in Peru, Bolívar heard news of the serious events that took place that year in Venezuela, where the first separatist voices started to emerge, unified over **La Cosiata**. By November 1826, he arrived in Bogotá in order to regain control of the republic. From there he traveled to Venezuela to avoid complete secession. He arrived at Puerto Cabello on 31 December and met in the second week of January with Páez, leader of Venezuela. They reached an agreement that saved the country from disintegration, but in exchange for Páez's ratification as leader of the country and the convening of an assembly to reform the constitution. The reunion was called the Convention of Ocaña (1828). By then, relations with Vice President **Francisco de Paula Santander** were in very poor condition. In September 1828, he suffered an assassination attempt, an event that turned the situation even worse and made Santander march into exile. Meanwhile, war against Peru broke out as that country initiated territorial claims, especially in Guayaquil. Given the failure of the Convention of Ocaña to catch in favor the dissolution of Colombia, Bolívar assumed the dictatorship in August 1828. In January 1830, he resigned the dictatorship and decided to go into exile. However, a disease ended

his life at one o'clock in the afternoon on 17 December 1830, at Quinta de San Pedro Alejandrino, Santa Marta, Colombia.

Besides María Teresa Rodríguez del Toro, Bolívar maintained personal relationships with many women. The most important and stable were with Josefa "Pepita" Machado (1813–1819) and **Manuela Sáenz** (1822–1830). He had no children in any of these relationships.

BOLÍVAR CORONADO, RAFAEL (Villa de Cura, 1884–Barcelona, Spain, 1924). **Journalist**, composer, and poet. He is very well known for creating the lyrics to "**Alma llanera**," a **joropo** that appears in the *zarzuela* of the same name with music by **Pedro Elías Gutiérrez**. Released in **Caracas** in 1919, it is considered the second anthem of Venezuela. In 1916, he departed for Spain, working with **Rufino Blanco Fombona** at Editorial América. As a writer, he used to masterfully falsify his intellectual work by ascribing its authorship to people who never existed or wrote it.

BOLÍVAR PALACIOS Y BLANCO, MARÍA ANTONIA (Caracas, 1777–Caracas, 1842). Older sister of **Simón Bolívar**. In 1814, facing the advance of **José Tomás Boves** on **Caracas**, she went into exile, where she expressed sympathy for the royalist cause. After the patriotic victory, in 1823 she returned to Caracas, and in 1824 Bolívar gave her full power to manage their properties. Thereafter, she became a faithful defender of the work and legacy of her brother.

BOLÍVAR Y PONTE, JUAN VICENTE (La Victoria, 1726–Caracas, 1786). Father of **Simón Bolívar**. In 1747, he was named general attorney of **Caracas**. In 1759, he was appointed the highest civil and military authority of La Victoria and San Mateo (**Aragua State**), as befitted the owner of a large portion of land in the region. In 1765, he was also the Royal Treasury administrator. In 1783, with the rank of colonel, he was in charge of the battalion of militias in the Aragua's valleys.

BOLIVARIAN NATIONAL ARMED FORCE. *See* ARMED FORCES.

BOLIVARIAN REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA. Official name of Venezuela since 1999. It expresses the project of refoundation of the republic that **Hugo Chávez** and the National Constituent Assembly of 1999 had as an objective, based on the thought of Liberator **Simón Bolívar**. The constitution enacted in 1999 is named the Bolivarian Constitution, and in general the process has been denominated the **Bolivarian Revolution**. In 2005, Chávez declared that the revolution was socialist, and his doctrine was then denominated **Bolivarian Socialism**.

BOLIVARIAN REVOLUTION. Name given to the revolution led by **Hugo Chávez** since 1999, and after his death by his successor, **Nicolás Maduro**. His objective was the refoundation of Venezuela according to an interpretation of **Simón Bolívar**'s thought that identifies him as the precedent of several trends in Latin American thought such as anti-imperialism and the *indigenismo*. Since 2005, the Bolivarian Revolution has assumed a socialist character. This marked the inception of the term **Bolivarian Socialism**. It is a model of central economic planning of Soviet inspiration. The Bolivarian Revolution opened the period of leftist governments across Latin America that was a main feature of the first two decades of the 21st century. The windfall of commodities prices encouraged the spread and popularity of such governments. Attempting to create an alternative pole to globalization and leveraging the large financial resources provided by **oil** rents, the Chávez regime established close alliances with other leftist governments, such as those of Inacio Lula Da Silva (**Brazil**), Néstor and Cristina Kirchner (Argentina), Evo Morales (Bolivia), Rafael Correa (Ecuador), and Daniel Ortega (Nicaragua). Nevertheless, the closest political, economic, and ideological tie was made with **Cuba**, with whom Venezuela signed the Integral Cooperation Covenant in 2000. Chávez also established alliances with Iran, Syria, Russia, and China. As well, he led the creation of and provided the financial support for **ALBA** (Alianza Bolivariana para los pueblos de Nuestra América), along with the Union de Naciones Sudamericanas (UNASUR), which has tried to be a balance to the **Organization of American States**. *See also* BOLIVARIANISM; FOREIGN POLICY; PETROCARIBE.

BOLIVARIAN SOCIALISM. Name given to the ideological doctrine of the **Bolivarian Revolution**. Although **Hugo Chávez** initially tried to distance himself from socialism, beginning in 2005 he declared it the path of the revolution. After his electoral triumph of 2006, he enacted socialism as the policy of the state. Bolivarian Socialism shares many of the principles of the leftist political parties of the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s, such as anti-imperialism, Latin American union (basically its main Bolivarian feature), and *indigenismo*. All this is combining with a highly state-run **economy** with some private activity and many of the formalisms of representative democracy, such as the call to elections and a multiparty system. It is a model of central economic planning of Soviet inspiration. *See also* BOLIVARIANISM; FOREIGN POLICY.

BOLIVARIAN SOCIETY. Institution dedicated to the study and spread of **Simón Bolívar**'s works and thought. Its origins lie in 1842, when **Rafael Urdaneta** founded the Sociedad Boliviana de Caracas in order to remember the deeds of the Liberator. That year saw the repatriation of the remains of the

Liberator and marked the reconciliation of Venezuela with his legacy. But in the late 1840s, the society ceased its activities. In 1932, it was rehabilitated by Carlos Sánchez, by that time a minister of defense who also served as president. On 23 March 1938, a decree proclaimed by President **Eleazar López Contreras** turned it into a national public institution.

BOLIVARIANISM. Name given to doctrines inspired by the thought of **Simón Bolívar**. Since in Venezuela almost all sectors have declared themselves Bolivarian, the content of Bolivarianism varies substantially. Therefore, it is more accurate to speak about a social imaginary based in two fundamental convictions. First, that the ideas of Bolívar are of mandatory importance for all Venezuelans, and as such, they can be applied to everything. Second, that Venezuela was destined to greatness under the leadership of Bolívar, but once Venezuela rebelled against him and his ideas the country began living in permanent decay. Hence, rescuing his thought is fundamental to becoming prosperous and powerful. Beyond these elements, each Bolivarian entity includes its own perspectives and conclusions. Thus, Bolivarianism had been employed to combat socialism and to defend it, and to support secularization as well as clericalism. There is consensus among historians that convictions are inexact, and the key political and social ideas of Bolívar, like unity with Nueva Granada or establishing a highly centralized political system, are not usually taken into account. Regardless, leveraging Bolívar and his ideas is one of the most important sources of political legitimacy in Venezuela. *See also* BOLIVARIAN REVOLUTION.

BORGES, JULIO (Caracas, 1969–). Politician. The leader of *Primero Justicia*, a center humanist political party and one of the largest in Venezuela, he graduated in law from the Universidad Católica Andrés Bello of **Caracas**. After obtaining a master's degree in political science from the University of Oxford, he returned to Venezuela, where he gained popularity with the television program *Justicia para Todos* (Justice for All). Years before, he had founded a nongovernmental organization called *Primero Justicia* with the aim of promoting the “justice of peace” model in Venezuela. In 2000, the NGO became a political party, which soon gained important successes in the hands of its young leaders. Borges was elected a parliamentarian in 2000 and again in 2015. In January 2017, he was elected president of the National Assembly.

BOULTON, ALFREDO (Caracas, 1908–Caracas, 1995). Historian, researcher, **art** critic, and curator. He held a chair on the international board of the Museum of Modern Art in New York. In 1959, he became a member of the **National Academy of History**. He was also a founding member of the

Museo de Arte Contemporáneo de Caracas. He was a pioneer of artistic photography and one of the persons who preserved the Venezuelan visual legacy by collecting pictures and photos from the 19th century. His work of three volumes, *Historia de la Pintura en Venezuela* (1964), is a primary reference on the nation's art.

BOUNDARIES. Venezuela borders 14 other states. On land, it shares 5,161 kilometers of border with **Colombia**, **Brazil**, and **Guyana**. It also has maritime borders in the Caribbean Sea and in the Atlantic Ocean. It has settled its limits of marine and submarine areas with the **United States** (through Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands), the Kingdom of the Netherlands (through Aruba, Curaçao, Bonaire, Saba, and St. Eustatius), the Dominican Republic, France (through Martinique and Guadeloupe), and **Trinidad** and Tobago. Its marine and submarine borders with Colombia, St. Kitts and Nevis, the United Kingdom (through Montserrat), Dominica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Grenada, and Guyana are less defined. *See also* AVES (ISLAND); ESSEQUIBO TERRITORY; GUAJIRA PENINSULA; GULF OF VENEZUELA; LOS MONJES ARCHIPELAGO.

BOVES, JOSÉ TOMÁS (Oviedo, Spain, 1782–Urica, 1814). Caudillo who in 1814 led the popular revolt against the **Second Republic** during the **War of Independence**. He arrived to Venezuela as a sailor. He was imprisoned for smuggling, but the penalty was commuted to confinement in Calabozo (**Guárico State**), located in the plains region (*llanos*). The following years he dedicated himself to the cattle trade, allowing him to identify very well with the culture of the Venezuelan plains region and to create a broad network of contacts. Although initially he supported the independence movement, in 1812 he was arrested under martial law and sentenced to death by the republican authorities. The conquest of Calabozo by the troops of **Domingo Monteverde** saved his life. Thereafter, he joined the royal army as a cavalry commander. When the patriots regained control in 1813, he began to organize the resistance movement. He quickly won the confidence of the *llaneros* (plains inhabitants) and exploited their racial hatred of the white elite that ruled in **Caracas**, encouraging the systematic murder of white people and the looting of their property. The unpopular government of **Simón Bolívar** after the **Guerra a Muerte** decree helped him get more followers. In 1814, he advanced over the center of the country with a large army of *llanero* riders. It was the cruelest time of war, with numerous massacres of white people and plunder of their properties by the soldiers. The torments that his victims suffered earned him a reputation as a sanguinary murderer. In the Battle of La Puerta, he defeated the troops of Bolívar and **Santiago Mariño**, which

led him to take over **Valencia**. Then he advanced to Caracas, from which a quarter of the population had ran in the **Emigración a Oriente** (migration to the east). Once he controlled the capital, he continued to the **Oriente** region. He took and looted **Cumaná**, once again perpetrating slaughter. By that time he called himself commander of the troops of the king in Venezuela, without any submission to the Spanish authorities, de facto governing the country. In the Battle of Urica (**Anzoátegui State**), he died from a spear wound. In 1815, a Spanish expedition led by **Pablo Morillo** came to Venezuela and tried to regain the country for the king.

BRACHO, GABRIEL (Puertos de Altigracia, 1915–Caracas, 1995). Painter. Influenced by the work of David Alfaro Siqueiros, he used the techniques of Mexican mural painting to show scenes of everyday life in vigorous brushstrokes and violent contrasts of color and shape. Of leftist thought, his use of realism is marked by his commitment to the cause of social struggle. Themes including folklore, **oil**, and history manifest his convictions and criticism of social circumstances. He was part of the group Paracotos and a member of the Realistic **Art** Workshop (ART). In 1977, in Bulgaria, he won the Committed Realist Painting Award, in 1986 the National Art Gallery held a retrospective of his work, and in 1995 he won the National Prize for Plastic Arts. His murals and stained glass are in Venezuela public buildings, including the presidential palace of Miraflores.

BRAZIL, RELATIONS WITH. After several years of negotiations, in 1859 the border treaty Tratado de Límites y Navegación Fluvial was signed. In later years, a **boundary** demarcation commission worked to delimit the frontier, and in the remaining 19th century relations were cordial. During the 20th century, trade relations and **economic** exchange grew thanks to the heyday of Venezuelan **oil**. However, after the establishment in Brazil of a military dictatorship in 1964, the government of President **Raúl Leoni** suspended diplomatic relations, which interfered with the placement of Venezuelan oil in the Brazilian market. Later, in 1969, President **Rafael Caldera** restructured Venezuelan diplomacy and opened channels with the military government in line with a **foreign policy** of cooperation among the countries of the region. During subsequent decades, relations were marked by moderate economic exchange and cordial diplomatic relations. During the 1990s, as Brazil was making efforts to unite the South American countries in a regional bloc, relations between both countries were affected by the penetration into Venezuela of Brazilian groups dedicated to the illegal mining of **gold**, called *garimpeiros*. In the 2000s, with the arrival of leftist presidents **Hugo Chávez** and Luiz Inácio da Silva, economic exchange increased as a result of agree-

ments signed in connection with the oil business. Venezuela's entry into the southern common market MERCOSUR intensified the importation of Brazilian products to the country. However, in 2016, with the dismissal of President Dilma Rousseff, Venezuela froze diplomatic relations and withdrew its ambassador to Brasília.

BRICEÑO IRAGORRY, MARIO (Trujillo, 1987–Caracas, 1958). Historian, essayist, politician, professor, and diplomat. Among the positions he held were secretary of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, director of the National Archive, president of the National Congress, and chronicler of **Caracas**. He was also a diplomat to the **United States**, **Costa Rica**, and **Colombia**. His intellectual work is characterized by a deeply nationalist reflection on history as a source, which contributes to the knowledge of the identity of Venezuelan society. His *Tapices de historia patria* (1934) were a breakthrough in Venezuelan historiography for his focus on the colonial period, neglected by previous historians. In 1951, he published his most famous essay, *Mensajes sin destino*, a reflection on the experiments taking place in Venezuelan society. Opposed to the dictatorship of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, in 1952 he supported **Unión Republicana Democrática** candidates, including **Jóvito Villalba**, being sent into exile until 1958. Among his other works are *Casa León y su tiempo* (1946), *El Regente Heredia y la piedad heroica* (1947), and *El caballo de Ledesma* (1951).

BRION, LUÍS (Curaçao, Netherlands Antilles, 1782–Curaçao, Netherlands Antilles, 1821). Independence leader, reaching in 1816 the rank of admiral of the navy of Venezuela and the Republic of Colombia (**Gran Colombia**). He studied in the Netherlands and in the **United States**, where he learned nautical science and maritime business. First in Europe and then in Curaçao, he participated in various battles against British forces. In 1813, he joined the cause of independence in Venezuela and in 1814, after becoming a Venezuelan citizen, was awarded by **Simón Bolívar** the rank of commander. In 1815, he met with Bolívar in Haiti, and they armed the **Los Cayos Expeditions** to the Venezuelan coast. In 1816, he defeated Spanish warships in the naval Battle of Los Frailes. In 1817, he participated in the Campaign of **Guayana** and was named president of the Government Council. In 1819, from **Margarita Island**, he left with an expedition to the shores of Nueva Granada. In 1821, due to tuberculosis, he moved to Curaçao. Since 1882, his remains have rested in the **National Pantheon in Caracas**.

BULLFIGHTING. It is a popular tradition brought from Spain since the colony. There are records of this practice in **Cubagua**. In 1840, the first

bullrings were created in **Caracas**, located in La Glorieta and La Candelaria. As time passed, they proliferated: Circo del Hipódromo (1883) and the Circo Metropolitano (1896). Most of the *toreros* were brought from Spain, and they started using uniforms in 1863. In the 20th century, the activity expanded and became a massive spectacle. Some of the bullfighters became national personalities, such as Pablo “El Rubio” Mirabal, Vicente “El Niño” Mendoza, and Joaquín “El Trompa” Briceño. At the same time, several bullrings were built, such as the Nuevo Circo de Caracas (1919), one at **Valencia** (1968), and the Plaza de Toros “Coliseo El Llano” in Tovar, **Mérida State** (1993). The Plaza de Toros Monumental of Valencia is the world’s second largest after the one in Mexico City. Although antibullfighting movements have had an impact, the tradition still prevails in the states of **Zulia**, **Táchira**, **Carabobo**, and Mérida.

BURK, IGNACIO (Nuremberg, Germany, 1904–Caracas, 1984). Professor, scientist, philosopher, and priest. In 1925, he went to Venezuela as a Salesian priest, where he taught in the Salesian schools of **Caracas** and **Valencia** and, since 1932, in the **Amazonas State**. While there, he contracted malaria. In consequence, he was sent to teach in schools in Los Teques and Valera, where he also founded the laboratory of the local hospital. In 1946, he enrolled in the **Instituto Pedagógico de Caracas** (then Instituto Pedagógico Nacional) to study biology and chemistry. As philosophy studies were beginning to be taught at the Pedagógico, Burk also pursued these. In 1949, he became professor of biology and chemistry and philosophy. However, he was suffering a crisis of faith and therefore became an atheist, gave up the priesthood, and married Elionor Geissler. From then on, he taught in public high schools until 1960, when the Pedagógico hired him again. It was the beginning of a fruitful era in his life, in which Burke published many articles in journals, newspapers, and textbooks. Among his books are *Clases de psicología* (1952), *Psicología general* (1961), *Introducción a los problemas del átomo* (1962), *Historia filosófica de la psique* (1971), and *Filosofía: una introducción actualizada* (1975).

BUROZ, EULALIA. See RAMOS SÁNCHEZ DE CHAMBERLAIN, EULALIA “EULALIA BUROZ.”

BUSINESS. During the 16th century, the first business operations, led by European adventurers, obtained **pearls** in **Cubagua** or enslaved and traded originary people on the coasts of Venezuela. In addition, modest **mining** operations were held in the western part of the territory. The most relevant

business enterprise was established by the **Welsers**, the German merchant-bankers to whom Venezuelan territory was given to govern and exploit, although this venture ultimately failed. During the 17th and 18th centuries, **cocoa** became an attractive and profitable crop to export, and business operations were established across the Venezuelan coasts to harvest and export the product, both legally and through smuggling. Cattle raising and **tobacco** were produced and exported in the *llanos* (plains), along with sugarcane in the center of Venezuela. The **War of Independence** and the end of Spanish monopoly brought **commercial houses** to Venezuela. Founded by European entrepreneurs, they established a new bourgeoisie, which replaced the land-owning aristocracy as the economic power. They monopolized the export of crops, mostly **coffee**, and imports of manufactured goods along with financial activities. Agrarian industry remained backward, with old technology and low productivity previous to the First Industrial Revolution, while manufacturing and other crafts existed in a modest way throughout the 19th century. **Railroads** and textile companies appeared in the last quarter of the 19th century. In the 1920s, the **economy** was dramatically transformed with the arrival of foreign **oil** multinationals. They established a modern industry, bringing technology along with processes and managerial practices, enabling the country to enter into the Second Industrial Revolution. The rent generated by oil increased, along with demand and the purchasing power of society. From the 1940s to 1970s, a larger number of enterprises appeared in Venezuela dedicated to consumer goods, automobiles, chemicals, airlines, utilities, media, and retail, further strengthened by import-substitution industrialization policies. The financial support of the state was present through institutions like the Corporación Venezolana de Fomento, as well as the private **banking** and insurance sectors. These enterprises started to be organized in employer associations like **FEDECÁMARAS** and its affiliated organizations. In the 1970s, as state capitalism gained ground, the state became the largest business operator when **oil nationalization** occurred. This continued when economic stagnation in 1980s and 1990s did not allow private businesses, with few exceptions, to continue growing, despite policies to incentivize exports and competitiveness. In the 2000s, **Hugo Chávez**'s oil-based socialist project progressively advanced in constraining private business through expropriation, by depriving it of foreign currency to operate, or through harsh regulations. This brought about a massive reduction in private enterprises operating in Venezuela, and the state controlled companies across all industry sectors, yet it was unable to operate them efficiently. Corruption and mismanagement hampered them, severely affecting the exporting capacity of the economy and local production to satisfy domestic demand. *See also* RENTIER CAPITALISM; ECONOMY.

BUTACA. A Cumanagoto word, it is documented in the current Venezuelan territory beginning in the 17th century. It refers to a kind of chair with scissor-form legs covered by raw leather. It became a popular seat inside the homes of Venezuelans. Through the Dutch colonies in the Caribbean, it passed to Europe in the 19th century, where it changed its form, acquiring a more comfortable and lordly design. In the 20th century, the word was popularized across the world, with the chair now used at cinemas, theaters, and any place of entertainment where people must sit down.

C

CABALLERO MEJÍAS, LUÍS (Caracas, 1903–Caracas, 1959). Engineer and teacher. He began his studies at the French College of **Caracas**. In 1925, he went to Chile, where he graduated as a mechanical engineer from the School of Arts and Crafts in Santiago in 1929. Subsequently, he completed his training in the **United States**. In 1937, when he returned to Venezuela, he founded the Industrial Technical School. In 1958, he was named director of the Central Office of **Education** in Handicraft, Industry, and Commerce of the Ministry of Education, where he promoted an educational reform in the country, leading technical education through the creation of trade schools, technical **agricultural** schools, and craft schools, among others. In 1954, he invented the industrial process to produce corn flour, the patent for which would be bought by **Lorenzo Mendoza Fleury** to produce and put on market the popular Harina P.A.N.

CABIMAS (CITY). Located in the northwest of the country, it is the capital of Cabimas municipality in **Zulia State**, with an area of 862 square kilometers and a **population** of 466,491. In 1707, a missionary settlement was established there, and later a Spanish settlement was founded nearby. The city was promoted to a municipality in 1884, being part of the Bolívar District. In 1913, an urban boom began due to the petroleum blowout, which brought new populations to the city. In 1922, the **oil** well Barroso 2 located in La Rosa oil field produced the famous **Reventón del Barroso 2** (an oil gusher), exhibiting the oil relevance of Venezuela. The oil industry is key to the **economy** of Cabimas. Other economic activities include shipyard, manufacturing, metal-mechanic, and construction industries.

CABRÉ, MANUEL (Barcelona, Spain, 1890–Caracas, 1984). Painter, representative artist of Venezuelan landscape painting. He is known as the painter of **Ávila Mountain** in **Caracas**, portraying it from every angle and nuance. When he was eight years old, he got into the **Fine Arts Academy** of Caracas, which would be directed by him between 1942 and 1946. In 1912, he was part of the **Círculo de Bellas Artes**. By 1920, he had moved to Paris, where he lived until 1930, experimenting with cubism and impressionism. In

1951, he received the National Prize for Painting. There have been retrospective exhibitions of his work at the National Art Gallery in 1980 and at the Museum of Contemporary Art of Caracas in 1990.

CABRUJAS, JOSÉ IGNACIO (Caracas, 1937–Porlamar, 1995). Writer, playwright, **journalist**, screenwriter for cinema and TV, and professor at the School of Arts at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. He was a key player in renewing the **telenovela** (soap opera) genre in Latin America. He produced many scripts by himself and jointly with relevant figures, such as Román Chalbaud, Julio César Marmol, **Isaac Chocrón**, and **Salvador Garmendia**. In theater, among his major works are *El día que me quieras*, *El Americano Ilustrado*, and *Acto Cultural*. He also wrote movie scripts, such as *El pez que fuma* and *La Quema de Judas*, and soap operas like *Estefania*, *Sangre Azul*, and *La Dueña*. He is one of the major figures of the **arts** in Venezuela in the second half of the 20th century, and his works provide an acute and polemical view of Venezuelan society during the period. *See also* PERFORMING ARTS.

CÁCERES DE ARISMENDI, LUISA (Caracas, 1799–Caracas, 1866). Independence heroine. In 1814, she left **Caracas** on the **Emigración a Oriente** (emigration to the east) to settle in **Margarita Island**. There she married the patriot officer **Juan Bautista Arismendi**. In 1815, during her pregnancy, she was taken prisoner by royalist forces to put pressure on her husband to exchange prisoners. After her husband's refusal, the conditions of captivity got worse, and in January 1816, in the Santa Rosa Fortress, she gave birth to a dead baby girl. In January 1817, she reached the Spanish city of Cádiz, where she had been sent after enduring several prisons in Venezuela. In 1818, she escaped to Philadelphia in the **United States** and returned to Margarita Island. Once the **War of Independence** was concluded, she settled in Caracas with her family. Her remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

CAJIGAL, JUAN MANUEL (Barcelona, 1803–Yaguaraparo, 1856). **Engineer**, educator, and writer, pioneer of mathematical studies in Venezuela. Educated in Spain, he joined as a cadet the Mounted Hussars and studied at the University of Alcalá de Henares. In 1823, he was sent to France, and there in 1828 he completed his studies of mathematics. Back in Venezuela, in 1829 he was a member of the **Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País**, acting as secretary that year and in 1830 and also in 1841. In 1831, he founded the **Mathematics Academy**, the first institution for the training of engineers. He directed the installation of the first telescopes in Caracas. Along with **Fermín Toro** and José Hermenegildo García, he founded the **newspaper** *Correo de*

Caracas (1838–1841). In 1843, he retired from public and academic life, devoting himself to writing **scientific** and literary works. The astronomical and meteorological observatory of Caracas bears his name.

CALDERA, RAFAEL (San Felipe, 1916–Caracas, 2009). Politician, academic, and president of Venezuela in the periods 1969–1974 and 1994–1999. Founder of the **COPEI** party and political leader of the Christian Democrats in Venezuela, he is considered one of the most important ideologists of Christian Democracy in the world. His parents were Rafael Caldera Izaguirre and Rosa Sofía Rodríguez Rivero. During his childhood, with the moving of his family to Puerto Cabello and the early passing away of his mother, his aunt María Eva Rodríguez and her husband, Tomás Liscano, took care of him and his **education**. His adoptive parent had great influence on his academic and political trajectory. With his parents, he moved in 1927 to **Caracas**. In the capital, he entered the Jesuit school of San Ignacio during a complex period that saw the rise of the **Generación del 28**. In 1932, he enrolled in the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**. He was a dedicated student; in 1935, his essay on **Andrés Bello** was awarded honors, and it is still considered one of the most important studies of the Venezuelan humanist. Since then, Caldera was one of the students and followers of *bellismo* (the movement that studies and promotes the dissemination of Bello's work) in Latin America. In 1933, he traveled to Rome as a representative to the International Congress of **Catholic** Youth. In 1936, he joined the Federación de Estudiantes de Venezuela but departed the same year as debates included the topic of religion. In this way, he founded the Unión Nacional de Estudiantes along with others like Pedro José Lara and Gustavo Ponte. In 1936, he was designated subdirector of the National Work Office, lasting until 1939. In this function, he formed his profile in the labor rights arena, which marked his political life. In 1938, jointly with other activists, he founded Acción Electoral, dissolved in 1945. As well, in 1939 he obtained the degree of doctor in political and law sciences with his thesis “Derecho del Trabajo,” which became a work of reference across Latin America. In 1941, Caldera was elected deputy to the National Congress. In parallel, he worked as a professor of law sociology on the law faculty of UCV.

In January 1946, he founded the Comité de Organización Política Electoral Independiente (COPEI), through which he conducted most of his political life. In this period, he was general procurer of the republic. After the military coup in 1948, and during the regime of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, he was prosecuted and jailed. Once the dictatorship was ousted and before the elections of December 1958, Caldera signed on behalf of COPEI jointly with representatives of **Acción Democrática (AD)** and **Unión Republicana**

Democrática (URD) the Pacto de Puntofijo. After supporting the consolidation of the democratic system through pacts with the governments of AD, he closely won the presidential election in December 1968. Among the measures he took in his first government (1969–1974) was the *pacificación* of guerrillas who had risen up in arms in the *lucha armada*, already started by **Raúl Leoni**. In addition, he advanced toward **oil nationalization** with decisions like the nationalization of the natural gas industry (1971). In international affairs, he resumed diplomatic relationships with governments rejected by the Betancourt Doctrine, developed by **Rómulo Betancourt**. In 1970, he subscribed to the Convenio Andrés Bello, and in 1973 Venezuela entered the Andean Pact. One of the most important diplomatic events of the period was the signing of the **Port of Spain Protocol** (1970). During his presidency, he had time to produce a work of Social Christian thought, *La especificidad de la democracia cristiana* (1973). After his first presidency, he continued in the political arena, running again for president in 1983. In February 1992, as lifetime senator, he gave a speech in the National Congress that resulted in an apology for the **February 4th** military coup attempt of **Hugo Chávez**, which gained him immediate popularity. This paved the way for his electoral victory in 1993, with a coalition of small and mostly leftist parties, under the name of *Convergencia Nacional*. He had departed COPEI a year before.

During his second mandate (1994–1999), he had to govern under adverse circumstances. Both the economic and the political models were in deep crisis. In fact, he won the election with an antiparty movement. With the oil-based **economy** losing steam, the country experienced its largest financial crisis ever recorded, with political parties sharply eroding in prestige and the state facing major efficiency issues. Inflation, devaluation, impoverishment of the middle class, and a rise in crime were the result. His effort to stabilize and save the democratic system he helped to found in 1958 did not achieve its objective, and in the 1998 election Hugo Chávez won the presidency. After 1999, he retired from politics.

Caldera was married to Alicia Pietri (1923–2011), with whom he had five children, including the philosopher Rafael Tomás Caldera.

CALYPSO. A musical style of the Caribbean. Despite being commonly considered to come from **Trinidad**, its roots are more likely in the French Antilles. During the 19th century, Trinidadian and other Antillean workers were hired to work in the **gold** mines of the **Guayana Region** and brought the music to Venezuela. Today, calypso is the typical **music** of Carnival in the **Oriente** (the east of Venezuela) and Guayana Regions. Frequently, it is sung in English, **creole**, or in a patois of English, Spanish, and French.

CAMEJO, JOSEFA (Curaidebo, 1791–Maracaibo, 1870). Independence heroine. She belonged to an influential family of **Coro**, and her uncle was the priest **Mariano de Talavera y Garcés**. Passing through **Caracas**, she witnessed the events of **April 19, 1810**. In 1811, she took a leading role in the resistance of the city of **Barinas** against royalist troops. In 1821, commanding an army of about 300 men, many of them **slaves** from her own farms, she led a rebellion against the royalists in the province of Coro, which ended when a civil Republican governor was appointed. On 3 May, in Pueblo Nuevo town, she read a manifesto declaring the freedom of the province of Coro and swore fidelity to the republic.

CAMEJO, PEDRO “NEGRO PRIMERO” (San Juan de Payara, c. 1790–Carabobo field, 1821). Cavalry officer in the **War of Independence**. He had courage in combat, skill in handling the lance, and physical size. Born as a **slave**, he initially fought alongside the royal army. In 1816, he joined the Republican side in Apure, under the command of **José Antonio Páez**. In 1818, he met **Simón Bolívar**. In 1819, he participated in the Queseras del Medio Battle, receiving the Order of Liberators of Venezuela. He died in combat during the **Carabobo Battle**. His nickname, “Negro Primero” (First Negro), honored his courage.

CAMPAÑA ADMIRABLE. Campaign made in 1813 by **Simón Bolívar**’s army in reconquering Venezuela, marking the beginning of the **Second Republic**.

CAMPAÑA DE ORIENTE. Military campaign that occurred between January and August 1813, during the **Second Republic** period, seeking to liberate the **Oriente** (eastern region of Venezuela) from Spanish forces. The supreme leader of this successful expedition was **Santiago Mariño**, known for that as the “Libertador de Oriente” (Liberator of the East).

CAPITULATION OF SAN MATEO (25 July 1812). Pact signed between **Francisco de Miranda** and **Domingo de Monteverde** ending fighting between patriots and Spaniards and ending as well the **First Republic**.

CAPRILES, TEODORO “TEO” (Caracas, 1907–Caracas, 1982). Cyclist and swimmer, founder of the Venezuelan Cycling Federation and of the Venezuelan Swimming Federation. He won gold medals in cycling in 1938 at the first Bolivarian Games of Bogotá and in 1946 at the Central American and Caribbean Games of Barranquilla. He also was a remarkable solo tenor of the

Lamas choir conducted by **Vicente Emilio Sojo**. The velodrome of **Caracas** and a chain of swimming schools bear his name.

CAPRILES RADONSKI, HENRIQUE (Caracas, 1972–). Politician. He is one of the main leaders of the Venezuelan opposition to the governments of **Hugo Chávez** and **Nicolás Maduro**. Descended on his paternal side from a family of Curaçao Sephardic Jews and on the maternal side of Polish Jews, his grandmother was a Holocaust survivor. Capriles, however, was raised **Catholic**. After studying law and working in the tax area, in 1998 he was elected a deputy by **COPEI**. Thus, in 1999, only 27 years old, he was appointed president of the Chamber of Deputies of the Congress of the Republic. When this institution disappeared due to the new constitution promulgated in 1999, he joined the founding team of the **Primero Justicia** Party and in 2000 won the election for mayor of Baruta, one of the municipalities of **Caracas**. Although he was briefly imprisoned due to the events of **April 11, 2002**, in 2004 he was reelected to office. In 2008, he won the governorship of **Miranda State**, one of the most important and complex national entities. His successful management of this important government projected him as a national leader, obtaining in 2012 the presidential candidacy of the alliance of opposition parties. The political weariness of Chávez, the worsening **economic** situation, and the intense electoral activity allowed him to reduce the distance to Chávez by 11 percent, the smallest margin of any opposition candidate who faced him. When Chávez died in 2013, he was again the candidate for the opposition alliance against Nicolás Maduro. This time the distance between candidates was only 1 percent, which generated great doubts about Maduro's triumph. Opposed to the protests of 2014, he fought for an electoral route to get Maduro out of power by proposing a recall referendum. By the beginning of 2017, Capriles was the favorite to replace Maduro in a majority of polls.

CARABOBO (STATE). It is located in the central region of the country, bordering the Caribbean Sea on the north, **Cojedes** and **Guárico** on the south, **Yaracuy** and **Falcón** on the west, and **Aragua** on the east. Its capital is **Valencia**. It has an area of 4,650 square kilometers (0.5 percent of the country), and its **population** is 2,872,982 (2015 census), making it the third most populated state after **Zulia** and **Miranda**. It also has 14 municipalities and 38 parishes. Its name is due to the **Carabobo Battle** in 1821, which, according to certain national historiography, ensured the independence of the nation. Its existence is recorded from 1824, when it was created as a province and along with the **province of Caracas** constituted the Venezuelan Department of **Gran Colombia**. Once Venezuela became an independent republic in 1830, Valencia was the capital of the country for a brief period. In the 20th century,

especially during the 1940s, Carabobo passed through an industrialization process in which several enterprises related to the automotive sector were installed, changing on a big scale the state's **economic** activities. Nonetheless, **agriculture** remains important, as can be seen in the cultivation of corn and beans, specially *caraotas* (black beans). In addition, there are two **oil** refineries, Morón and El Palito, which contribute to the economy of the zone.

CARABOBO BATTLE. Military engagement occurring on the savannah of Carabobo, near **Valencia (Carabobo State)**, on 24 June 1821. It was fought between the royalist army of Field Marshal **Miguel de la Torre** and the republican army of Commander-in-Chief **Simón Bolívar**. The victory achieved by Bolívar was decisive for the incorporation of **Caracas** and the center region of Venezuela into **Gran Colombia**. **José Antonio Páez** participated outstandingly during the action, laying the foundation for his leadership as a major national **caudillo** of Venezuela. Conventionally, it is considered the battle that sealed the independence of Venezuela. Every year the date is celebrated as **Army Day**. *See also* CAMEJO, PEDRO "NEGRO PRIMERO."

CARACAS (CITY). Located in the center-north of the country, in the Caracas Valley, it is the capital of Venezuela. The **Ávila Mountain** separates the city from the Caribbean Sea. Situated within the **Distrito Capital**, the city has a population of 2,245,744 (though the Gran Caracas region has some four million people). Conventionally, its date of foundation is accepted as 25 July 1567, even though there is no clear evidence in this respect. In the middle of the 16th century, Spanish conquerors entered the Caracas Valley searching for **gold** deposits. In 1560, **Francisco Fajardo** established the Hato de San Francisco in the place. The following year, **Juan Rodríguez de Suárez** established the Villa de San Francisco. In both cases, Spanish foundations were razed by aboriginal tribes, known by the Spanish conquerors as **Caracas Indians** but which in reality constituted a group of **original peoples** of **Caribbean people** origin. **Guaicaipuro**, the main military chieftain, has passed into Venezuelan history and tradition as a legendary figure and a symbol of aboriginal resistance. Commissioned to pacify the zone, **Diego de Losada** founded Santiago de León de Caracas in 1567, divided the aborigines into *encomiendas*, and defeated them in battle. In addition, the first *cabildo* was established, and lands were given to the conquerors. In 1577, Governor **Juan de Pimentel** moved the capital of the **province of Venezuela** to the city. Nevertheless, the war against the aborigines continued until the end of the 16th century. In 1595, English pirates sacked and burned the city, which was able to rebuild itself with a lot of sacrifice. Even though the gold deposits were not rich, the production of wheat offered a profitable activity, and since the

17th century the production of **cocoa** in the neighboring Tuy Valley and on the coast of Barlovento was lucrative. The cocoa of the province of Caracas, as the province of Venezuela started to be known, became famous in Europe and enabled the appearance of a local aristocracy known as *grandes cacaos* or *mantuanos*. In 1728, during the period of the Borbonic Reforms, King Phillip V created the Real Compañía de Caracas, known as the **Compañía Guipuzcoana**. This made the city the **economic** center of neighboring provinces. Not in vain, in 1739 Caracas was, along with Portobelo and Cartagena, one of the three areas into which the Viceroyalty of Nueva Granada was divided. However, as it gained importance, in 1742 it was detached and started to function as the capital of an autonomous province. A process of centralization of the neighboring provinces around the city then started. In Caracas was set the Intendancy in 1776, the **Venezuelan General Captaincy** in 1777, the Real Audiencia in 1786, and the **archbishopric** in 1804. When in 1810 the **Junta Suprema de Caracas** was created, it obtained the recognition of other boards formed in the country. Upon the declaration of independence in 1811, Caracas became the capital of the Republic of Venezuela, except during the lapse of **Gran Colombia**, in which it was the capital of the Venezuela Department. The development of the city in the last decades of the colonial era is proven by its being the birthplace of three main characters of Hispano-American Independence, **Francisco de Miranda**, **Simón Bolívar**, and **Andrés Bello**. Destroyed by the **Earthquake of 1812** and abandoned by 25 percent of its population in 1814 during the **Emigración a Oriente**, the city took a long time to recover from the effects of the **War of Independence**. It was not until the government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** (1870–1888) that large urban reforms, some of which remain as city landmarks, were undertaken. The Federal Capitol, the **National Pantheon**, the Plaza Bolívar, the Municipal **Theater**, and the Calvary are still standing. By this time it was called “the little Paris.” However, the colonial city did not disappear until the arrival of the **oil** boom in the 1930s. Caracas was the cynosure of thousands of immigrants from inside and outside of the country, passing from 92,212 inhabitants according to the census of 1920 to 786,863 in 1961. In addition, it became the target of massive public and private investment that transformed it into a modern city. This investment focused on public buildings, social housing, real estate, and industry. From the 1950s, the Metropolitan Area of Caracas, with neighboring municipalities, has been called Gran Caracas. It contains the entire set of satellite towns in the Altos Mirandinos, Valles del Tuy, Central Coast, Guarenas-Guatire, and surrounding microregions. The growth of the city in the second half of the 20th century turned it into a cosmopolitan city with many cultural centers, such as the Museum of Contemporary Art of Caracas and the **Teresa Carreño** Cultural Complex, as well as infrastructure

projects such as highways and the Metro de Caracas, which opened in 1983, five-star hotels, shopping malls and luxury shops, and parks like the Parque del Este. However, the speed and disorganization of this growth created large areas of poverty known as *barrios* or *cerros* (slums or hills) because of their location in the mountains surrounding the valley. Also, the city is becoming famous for its traffic jams. When the oil model went into crisis in the 1980s, it began to be very difficult to maintain the infrastructure of the city, which at the beginning of the 21st century shows many flaws, and in some cases has even fallen into ruin. The events of the **Caracazo** in 1989 had their epicenter in the city, which since then has aggravated its social problems, especially crime, to become 2016's most violent city in the world with 120 homicides per 100,000 inhabitants.

CARACAS (PROVINCE). This name has belonged to two entities. The first existed during the 17th and 18th centuries, originally entitled the **province of Venezuela**. Including within its boundaries the province of **Maracaibo** (1622), it comprised only the center of actual Venezuela. The second entity appeared in 1777 and included all provinces under the **General Captaincy** created that year. In 1815, King Ferdinand VII separated part of the province of Caracas, creating the province of **Coro**. In 1864, with the establishment of the federal system, the province of Caracas was eliminated. The capital city and its neighboring territories became the **Distrito Federal**, while the rest of the territory was renamed Estado Caracas. The same year it was changed to Estado Bolívar (not to be confused with the current **Bolivar State**). The territories covered by that state are present-day **Guárico, Aragua, Carabobo, Cojedes, and Miranda States**.

CARACAS INDIANS. A warlike group of coastal **Caribbean people** during the period of the conquests settled mainly in the **Caracas Valley** and surroundings. *See also* GUAICAIPURO; ORIGINAL PEOPLE.

CARACAS SUPREME JUNTA. *See* JUNTA SUPREMA CONSERVADORA DE LOS DRECHOS DE FERNANDO VII.

CARACAZO. Series of strong protests and looting that began on 27 February and lasted until 8 March 1989, occurring mainly in the city of **Caracas** but also involving Guarenas-Guatire, La Guaira, Maracay, **Valencia, Barquisimeto, Mérida, and Ciudad Guayana**. The protests started in response to the **economic** measures taken by the government of **Carlos Andrés Pérez**, including an increase in the price of gasoline. The operation of the **armed forces** along with the National Guard to control the situation resulted in 276

dead and numerous injured, according to official figures. Some unofficial reports speak of more than 300 people deceased and 3,000 disappeared. This event generated a clash in public opinion after decades without violent acts of such magnitude. It represented a precedent of military discontent that would end in the coup attempts of **February 4** and **November 27, 1992**.

CÁRDENAS, ROMÁN (El Ceibal, 1862–Caracas, 1950). Public administration official and reformer of the National Treasury. In 1910, he entered **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s government as minister of public works, where he developed the first national plan of public works and the first national plan of **roads**. In 1913, after spending a season in London studying finance, he became minister of the treasury. From that position, he promoted the reform of public finances, including the centralization of national incomes, a treasury reorganization, and the modernization of public accounting. He retired from public service in 1922.

CARIBBEAN PEOPLE. One of the main groups of **original peoples** living in Venezuela before the arrival of the Spaniards. They were located in the coastal zones of Paria and Borburata, on the **Trinidad** northern islands, and along the borders of the **Orinoco River**. During the conquest, they gained fame for ferocity because of their stubborn resistance to the Europeans. Until the 18th century, in some areas they remained in arms. Taking advantage of European rivalries for control of the Caribbean Sea, they allied with the Dutch, from whom they gained weapons, and enslaved Indians from other tribes. They practiced cannibalism, helping cement their fierce reputation. In fact, the word *cannibal* comes from *Caribbean*. Some of the tribes that belong to this ethnic group in the present day are the Pemón (located in the southeast of **Bolívar State**, near the **Gran Sabana**) and the **Kariñas** (located in the eastern *llanos*).

CARLOS, EL CHACAL (Michelena, 1949–). Activist of diverse revolutionary movements who became famous worldwide during the 1970s and 1980s for terrorist acts. His real name is Ilich Ramírez Sánchez. From communist convictions in his youth, he began his university studies in the Soviet Union. Without finishing a degree, he connected with the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine. As one of its agents, he assumed the name Carlos Martínez, which remains associated with him. To this alias he later incorporated "El Chacal," taken from the famous novel of Frederick Forsyth, *The Day of the Jackal*. Among his most publicized actions are the murder of two French police in Paris and a raid on the headquarters of the Organization of Petroleum Exporters Countries in Vienna, both in 1975. With these events he

acquired fame all over the planet, becoming a hero to many Arabs. Captured in Khartoum, Sudan, he was taken to France, where he was prosecuted and imprisoned. At present, he is serving a life sentence.

CARMONA ESTANGA, PEDRO (Barquisimeto, 1941–). Interim president during the success of **April 11, 2002**. In 2001, he was elected president of **FEDECÁMARAS** and led private-sector opposition to the policies of President **Hugo Chávez** to curtail free enterprise. On the success of April 11, 2002, and after Chávez renounced the presidency in the face of massive popular protests and pressure from the military, Carmona assumed the presidency on 12 April. After being sworn in as president, he signed a decree dissolving public powers, restoring the name República de Venezuela, and calling for elections in the short term. After conflicts with political factions and high-ranking military officers, Carmona was ousted on 13 April and Chávez restored to power. He went into exile in **Colombia** and currently is devoted to academic activities.

CARRASQUEL, ALEJANDRO “PATÓN” (Caracas, 1912–Caracas, 1969). Baseball player, first Venezuelan to play in the major leagues. Called “Patón” because of the size of his feet, he was a pitcher for the Washington Senators from 1939 to 1946. In his inaugural game against the New York Yankees, he dominated with a harmless rolling ball to Joe DiMaggio and struck out Lou Gehrig. In 1949, he joined the Chicago White Sox for relief appearances, playing in only three games. In Venezuela, he played for the Cervecería **Caracas**, Navegantes del Magallanes, and **Maracaibo** Gavilanes.

CARREÑO, MANUEL ANTONIO (Caracas, 1813–Paris, France, 1874). Writer, businessman, and author of the famous *Manual de Carreño*. His daughter was the pianist **Teresa Carreño**. Born into a family of musicians and educators, his father was the musician Cayetano Carreño; his grandfather was the priest Alejandro Carreño, an important Venezuelan composer during the 18th century; and his uncle was the philosopher and educator **Simón Rodríguez**. Although he played piano, Carreño devoted himself to business, in which he was successful. In 1841, in **Caracas**, he founded the private school Colegio Roscio jointly with Francisco Javier Yanes (whose father, bearing the same name, signed the Independence Act). Nevertheless, he resigned his job as the school’s director in 1844 and undertook the translation and publication of several textbooks. In 1854, he published in Caracas and New York the *Manual de Urbanidad y buenas maneras para uso de la juventud de ambos sexos*. Soon, this book became a great best-seller in Latin America and Spain. Since then, the *Manual de Carreño* or *El Carreño* has been continuously

published, and his name is synonymous with Urbanism in the Spanish-speaking world. After this success, Carreño focused on the career of his daughter, Teresa, who was a piano prodigy. He became her manager and toured with her throughout the Americas and Europe. Finally, they moved to France, where he passed away.

CARREÑO, TERESA (Caracas, 1853–New York, United States, 1917). Pianist, composer, pedagogue, opera singer, and conductor. She was the daughter of **Manuel Antonio Carreño**. When she was eight years old, she traveled with her family to New York, where she received lessons from Louis Moreau Gottschalk. A year later she began a successful career as a performer. She moved to Paris in 1866, being praised by Gioacchino Rossini and Liszt, among others. She was especially successful in Germany and lived in Berlin, dedicated to lecturing for 27 years until 1916. Among her compositions are the *Himno a Simón Bolívar* (Hymn to **Simón Bolívar**). The principal cultural complex of **Caracas** is named after her.

CARTAGENA MANIFESTO. This name is conventionally given to the *Memoria dirigida a los ciudadanos de la Nueva Granada por un caraqueño* (Memory Addressed to the Citizens of Nueva Granada by a Caracas Citizen), written by **Simón Bolívar** and dated 15 December 1812. As it was first published in Cartagena (current **Colombia**), and later editions just called it *Manifiesto de Cartagena*. This was the first political document by Bolívar, designed to enlist the support of the United Provinces of Nueva Granada for the liberation of Venezuela, in Spanish hands at that time. Bolívar offers his view of the causes of the fall of the **First Republic** and establishes, for the first time, his vision of Latin American independence, declaring that freedom of a country is only possible with the freedom of everyone else. This document exposed recurrent themes in the thought of the Libertador, such as his opposition to the federal system. The manifesto took effect, because Bolívar was integrated into the troops of the United Provinces, which eventually supported him to organize the **Campaña Admirable** in Venezuela, the beginning of the **Second Republic**.

CARVAJAL, JUAN DE (Villafranca, Spain, ?–El Tocuyo, 1546). Conqueror, founder of El Tocuyo. In 1544, in the middle of the crisis in the **province of Venezuela** due to the **Welsers**'s administration, he was designated governor and captain general of **Venezuela**. Immediately, Carvajal took a significant decision for Venezuelan history as he decided to stop looking for **El Dorado** and start taking advantage of the agricultural potential of the country. For this purpose, he organized an expedition of great magnitude

starting in **Coro**, founded by conquerors and **aborigines**, with a number of cattle, to go deep into the territory. On 7 December 1544, El Tocuyo was founded (appointed capital of the province of Venezuela between 1546 and 1548). As the Welsers did not accede to their loss of power, Carvajal arrested and beheaded **Philippe von Hutten**, the last German governor, along with Bartholomeus Welser and two supporters. The abusive action created a scandal that was referred to Juan Pérez de Tolosa, head of the Royal Audience of Santo Domingo. After investigations, Carvajal was found guilty and sentenced to die on the gallows.

CASA NATAL DEL LIBERTADOR (BIRTHPLACE OF SIMÓN BOLÍVAR). Historic site located in **Caracas** where Libertador **Simón Bolívar** was born in 1783. It is a manor house of the 17th century placed in front of San Jacinto Square. For a century, the house was the property of the Bolívar family. In 1876, President **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, promoter of **Bolivarianism**, bought it, although the house was turned into a storage facility when San Jacinto Square became the city market. In 1912, the house was bought with public donations and endowed to the state. Between 1916 and 1921, it suffered a controversial renovation. Instead of rebuilding it according to the style of the 17th century, it was transformed into a luxurious place with imaginative architecture. Its walls were decorated with heroic paintings elaborated by **Tito Salas** about the history of Venezuela and episodes in the life of Bolívar, which became powerful images in the historical imaginary of Venezuelans.

CASTELLANOS, JUAN DE (Seville, Spain, 1522–Tunja, Colombia, 1607). Conqueror, priest, writer, and poet. After participating in the exploitation of **pearls** in **Cubagua**, **Margarita Island**, **Trinidad**, and Cabo de La Vela, he founded in 1541 Valledupar (in present-day **Colombia**). Ordained as a priest, he was assigned to Tunja, where he spent his last years. There he started writing a chronicle of the conquest in verse, which was entitled *Elegías de varones ilustres de Indias* (Elegies of Illustrious Men into the Indies). At 113,609 verses, some consider it the longest poem ever written. It constitutes an essential tool for the study of the conquest of Colombia and Venezuela.

CASTILLO LARA, ROSALIO (Güiripa, 1922–Caracas, 2007). Cardinal of the **Catholic Church**, administrator of the Holy See, and a Salesian religious. Having studied at the Salesian University in Turin, Italy, he became a professor in Italy and coadjutor bishop of **Trujillo**. Appointed cardinal by Pope John Paul II in 1985, he spent the following years holding important

positions in the Vatican. Once retired, he returned to Venezuela, being one of the main voices critical of President **Hugo Chávez**.

CASTRO, CIPRIANO (Capacho, 1858–Santurce, Puerto Rico, 1924). Politician, **caudillo**, and president of Venezuela between 1899 and 1908. He started the period of Venezuelan history known as the **Andean Hegemony** (1899–1945). From a family of influence and economic power in **Táchira State**, he completed his education first in his hometown and in San Cristóbal and then in **Colombia**, at the Seminary School of Pamplona (1872–1873). Educated under the precepts of **liberal** political doctrine, he had problems with the authorities of the Great State of Los Andes, especially with the governor of Táchira, Espíritu Santo Morales (1885–1886), even participating in an attempted military coup in 1885. During these political events, he met **Juan Vicente Gómez**, who would be crucial to his life. Due to his proximity to General Rangel Garbirlas, who won the presidency of the Great State of Los Andes in 1887, he acceded to the governorship of Táchira that year. After his short tenure, he was elected deputy of Táchira during the government of **Raimundo Andueza Palacios** (1890–1892). Since he supported the president during the **Revolución Legalista** (1892), he had to go into exile in Cúcuta along with his close friend Gómez. Due to the chaotic political situation following the presidential election of 1898, he rose in arms against the newly formed government of **Ignacio Andrade**, which he said was spurious because of the fraudulent results. Castro undertook an invasion from Cúcuta, the **Revolución Liberal Restauradora** (1899), and with a series of military triumphs and brandishing the slogan of “New Men, New Ideals, New Procedures,” he entered **Caracas** victorious.

During his administration, Venezuela experienced significant political and social changes, including the end of caudillismo as a sociopolitical phenomenon and the start of the centralization process that involved the political and administrative reorganization of the territory. Both paved the way to the modernization of the Venezuelan state, formalized by Castro’s successor, Juan Vicente Gómez. During his government, Castro faced the **Revolución Libertadora**, considered the last military movement of its kind in Venezuela. Led by banker **Manuel Antonio Matos** and with the support of international capital, the revolution was defeated, Castro’s regime ended strong and in triumph over the caudillos involved in the *Libertadora*. In the middle of the struggle, he also had to deal with the **Venezuelan Crisis of 1902**, one of the most serious international episodes the country has faced, when the Venezuelan coast was blockaded by European powers. In 1908, due to illness, he delegated power to his vice president, Gómez, who took the opportunity and usurp the presidency, denying Castro entrance into the country. Unable to

come home and harassed by European powers, he passed the rest of his days in Puerto Rico.

CASTRO, JUAN BAUTISTA (Caracas, 1846–Caracas, 1915). Archbishop of **Caracas** between 1904 and 1915. He is remembered as an intellectual who fought positivism and Darwinism, both greatly expanding at a time. He was ordained by Archbishop **Silvestre Guevara y Lira** while both were in exile in **Trinidad**. He was involved in important **journalistic** work, being editor of *El Ángel Guardián* (1881) and *El Áncora* (1887), and he is listed as founder of the **newspaper** *La Religión* (1890). He was the author of the works *Ciencia y Fe* (1888) and *Lecciones de filosofía elemental* (1890). In 1896, he founded the Congregation of the Servants of the Blessed Sacrament. In 1900, along with Monsignor Críspulo Uzcátegui, he obtained the repeal of the *guzmancista* law prohibiting the existence of seminaries in the country. In 1904, he was consecrated archbishop of Caracas. In 1914, he was appointed bishop assistant to the Pontifical Sacro Solio and received the title of Roman count. From 1893, he was a member of the **Venezuelan Academy of Language**. *See also* ARCHBISHOPRIC OF VENEZUELA; GUZMÁN BLANCO, ANTONIO; SCIENCE.

CASTRO, JULIÁN (Petare, c. 1810–Valencia, 1875). President of Venezuela (1858–1859), soldier, and **caudillo**. Being a young army officer, in 1835 he took part in the **Revolución de las Reformas**, the coup d'état that briefly overthrew President **José María Vargas**, and was imprisoned once it was defeated. By 1845, he resumed his career in the **army** and lived in Bejuma (**Carabobo State**), where he became an important landlord and regional **caudillo**. A supporter of the **Liberal Party**, Castro successfully fought against **José Antonio Páez**'s rebellion in 1849. In 1853, he was promoted to general. In 1856, he was appointed governor of the **province of Carabobo**. In 1858, when the Liberals and **Conservatives** formed an alliance to overthrow President **José Tadeo Monagas**, they elected Castro as leader of the **Revolución de Marzo**. This led him to become president of Venezuela. While in office, Castro convened a national constituent assembly, the **Valencia Convention** (1858), as well as promoted some reforms. However, the differences between Liberals and Conservatives undermined his government. Likewise, he faced important diplomatic problems related to the **Urrutia Protocol**, as French and British vessels blockaded the Venezuelan coast. The **Federal War** erupted in 1859, and the army overthrew Castro. Retired from politics and military affairs for several years, he returned to active duty under the command of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. In 1872, he fought General Matías Salazar, in rebellion against the government. Castro led the court-martial

that sentenced Salazar to death. The descendants of Castro were important caudillos, politicians, and landowners of Carabobo State until the mid-20th century.

CASTRO LEIVA, LUIS (Caracas, 1943–Chicago, United States, 1999). Historian and philosopher. After obtaining his doctorate in philosophy from Cambridge University, he was one of the promoters of intellectual history in Venezuela. His study on **Bolivarianism**, *De la patria boba a la teología bolivariana* (From the Dummy Homeland to the Bolivarian Theology), first published in 1991, is considered essential to understanding the phenomenon. His speech remembering the 40 anniversary of **January 23, 1958**, in the Congress of the Republic, given in 1998, is considered a historical piece because of its premonitory value.

CASTRO LEÓN, JESÚS MARÍA (Capacho, 1908–Caracas, 1965). Military officer. He was part of the military rebellion that led to the overthrow of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** on **January 23, 1958**. Appointed minister of defense by the junta that replaced the dictatorship, in July he led a revolt against the government, demanding President **Wolfgang Larrazábal** undertake political and military changes and appoint new members to the board. The rebellion was rejected by Venezuelans and was defeated after hours of tension. He was forced to resign and sent into exile. In April 1960, Castro León led an invasion from **Colombia**, occupying the city of San Cristobal (**Táchira State**) with the support of a local military garrison. He was swiftly defeated, arrested, judged by military tribunal, and condemned to prison, where he died.

CATHOLIC CHURCH. It is the most important church in Venezuela, with around 80 percent of Venezuelans being Catholic. Since the country was organized during Spanish colonial rule under Catholic principles, Venezuelan culture and customs are strongly influenced by Catholicism. Therefore, the history of the Catholic Church in Venezuela is critical to understanding the nation, and it can be divided into four periods: (1) the colonial era, known as the age of the *catolicidad* (a society organized under Catholic rules, specifically Catholic Christendom; “Catholicity” is not an exact translation); (2) the era of liberalism, throughout the 19th century; (3) the restoration, between the 1890s and 1950s; and (4) the contemporary period, since the 1950s.

The Age of Catolicidad. According to the papal bull *Inter Caetera* of 1493, which divided the world between Spain and Portugal, the current territory of Venezuela was part of the Spanish domains. The goal of this bull was to promote the expansion of Christendom in the New World. Since the pope did not have the resources to mount this mission, he authorized the kings of Spain

to manage the church in these territories. As a result of this policy, the system known as Ecclesial Patronage or Royal Patronage appeared. In it, the king had the right to administer the church in its temporal matters, such as creating dioceses and parishes, appointing bishops, and collecting tithes. This union between the king and the church produced a society modeled on Catholic patterns: **art, education, law**, and custom were inside the principles of Catholicity. The first effort of the church was the evangelization of the **indigenous**. Several friars came with the conquerors with the dream of creating a new and better Catholicity than that of European Christendom. In 1514, Dominican and Franciscan brothers established their first convents in the **Oriente** of Venezuela. In 1520, Fray **Bartolomé de Las Casas** was authorized by the king to evangelize the territory close to current **Cumaná**. However, this project, known in the historiography as “pure evangelization,” rapidly became disillusioned. War between conquerors and indigenous broke out because of the enslavement of the natives, and eventually the **mission** was destroyed in a rebellion. In 1531, the diocese of Venezuela was established, based in **Coro**. **Rodrigo de Bastidas (the Younger)** was its first bishop. This diocese was moved to **Caracas** in 1637 as the city gained importance as the capital of the province. The bishop of Caracas became the head of the church in the west of current Venezuela (the east was under the bishop of Puerto Rico). Autonomous to the bishop, **missions** of Franciscans, Capuchins, and Jesuits were established in the **llanos** and **Guayana**. These missions were critical to the expansion of the Catholic Church and Spanish rule: during the 17th and 18th centuries, the missionaries founded more than three hundred villages that completed the conquest of Venezuela. In 1696, the Seminary of Santa Rosa de Lima was established in Caracas (it became a university in 1721), and in 1790 the Seminary of San Buenaventura was founded in **Mérida**. In the context of the Borbonic Reforms and their goal of rationalizing and centralizing the administration of their territories, the dioceses of Mérida (1777) and Guayana (1790, based in **Angostura**) were created. In 1804, all the provinces of the current Venezuela were centralized under the Archdiocese of Caracas. By the time Venezuela declared its independence, Catholicity had already been established in all its territory up to the northern **Orinoco River**.

The Era of Liberalism. On **July 5, 1811**, independence from Spain was declared, and 10 days later, on 15 July, Archbishop **Narciso Coll y Prat** proclaimed the separation of the Church of Venezuela from the Church of Spain. Nonetheless, the process of creating a national church was long and complicated. Many of the priests were Spaniards and, consequently, were loyal to the king. At the same time, the independent republic was inspired by Enlightenment principles that usually were considered heresies by the Church. For instance, in 1816 the papal bull *Etsi Longissima* ordered Latin

Americans to abandon the revolution and follow the king. However, the revolution eventually won. The truth is that, despite these problems, all the leaders of independence were Catholic, there were many patriotic priests, and as soon as the republic was consolidated the government sought an agreement with the Holy See. In 1827, the pope appointed bishops to the dioceses of **Gran Colombia**, which was considered a big diplomatic triumph for the republic. Yet problems between the new state and the church appeared very quickly. In 1824, Gran Colombia declared itself heiress of the Royal Patronage. After the separation of the union, in 1833 the Venezuelan Congress proclaimed the Patronage, which existed until 1964. It was the beginning of a long dispute. While the church never accepted that republican Patronage was legitimate, the republic (Gran Colombia first and later Venezuela) applied it for over a century. According to this new Patronage, Congress appointed the bishops and archbishops, established the parish and diocese, and paid the wages of priests. The president, in this context, was the patron of the church in temporal matters. However, the heart of the problem was not only legal but also ideological: the new state was established on a liberal basis, but the Holy See condemned liberalism. That is to say, a liberal president and congress administered an antiliberal church. For instance, in 1830, the bishops **Ramón Ignacio Méndez**, Buenaventura Arias, and **Mariano Talavera y Garcés** were exiled because they refused to swear allegiance to the Constitution. During the government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** (1870–1888), the bishops of Caracas (**Silvestre Guevara y Lira**) and Mérida (José Hilario Bosset) were once more expelled from the country. They were against Guzmán Blanco's measures to secularize Venezuela, such as the ban on female convents and seminaries, the establishment of civil marriage, and even the creation of a Venezuelan church independent of Rome.

The Restoration. By the end of the 19th century, Guzmán Blanco was out of power, and Venezuela was immersed in a deep political and **economic** crisis. Therefore, *guzmancismo* gradually mended fences with the church. They saw in it an ally to face several problems, such as the control of the **boundaries** (in the 1890s, Venezuela suffered enormous territorial losses), education, and public **health**. Thus, congregations were allowed again to return to Venezuela. In 1889, the sisters of San Joseph of Tarbes came to the country to work in the new Vargas Hospital in Caracas; in 1891, the Capuchins returned to establish missions along the borders; and in 1894, the Salesians arrived to contribute to **education**. Thereafter, the church recovered spaces and power in Venezuela. This process is known as the restoration by church historiography due to the project of the clergy. This project consisted of reversing the liberal reforms and restoring the old *catolicidad*. Obviously, the restoration could not fully achieve this goal, but in the next half century

the church experienced steady growth. In fact, between 1900 and 1950, important congregations arrived, such as the Lasallians in 1913 and the Jesuits in 1916; the number of dioceses was doubled; the missions were restored in 1915; and many schools and hospitals were established, managed by clergy or nuns. Therefore, when Bishop **Salvador Montes de Oca** was expelled from Venezuela in 1930 due to his opposition to the divorce law (enacted in 1904), the church was able to successfully confront the government. When Venezuela experienced a democratic opening in 1936, the church played an important role. Since 1927, Catholic Action has worked in the country, and in 1936 a group of Catholic students founded the Unión Nacional de Estudiantes, a seed of the important Venezuelan Social Christian movement. Later, in 1953, **Andrés Bello** Catholic University in Caracas was established.

Contemporary Period. Since 1950, the Catholic Church has experienced a paradox. On one hand, it has increased greatly in dioceses, schools, and social and political power; but, on the other, it has faced a reduction in the number of followers, an abandoning of many traditional customs, and a boom in evangelical churches and Afro-Caribbean **religions**. Meanwhile, the clergy has gradually abandoned their conservative positions. In 1955, Father **José María Vélaz** and the worker Abraham Reyes founded the popular educational movement **Fe y Alegría**. On 1 May 1957, Archbishop **Rafael Arias Blanco** enacted his famous Pastoral Letter of St. Joseph Worker's Day, in which he denounced the social problems of the Venezuelan working class. This letter played a role in the overthrow of the **military dictatorship** of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** (1958). Thereafter, the church became a close ally of democracy, especially in its first years, when it had to fight against communist insurgency. In this context, in 1964, the Venezuelan state and the Holy See signed a modus vivendi agreement whereby the Patronage was finally abolished (though in some aspects the connection between the state and the church was maintained). Since the 1970s, some clergy have started to be more critical of the state. Some of these were influenced by liberation theology or even by Marxism. At the same time, the growing crisis of the system since the 1980s has prompted the episcopate to denounce such problems as corruption, poverty, and inequality. In those years besides, the social and educative enterprises of the church made it very prestigious among Venezuelans. When **Hugo Chávez** took power in 1999, the clergy were split into two parts: *chavistas* and *opositores* (opponents). However, as soon as Chávez expressed his socialist project, most of them became opponents. In fact, Archbishop Ignacio Velasco supported the ousting of Chávez on **April 11, 2002**. Nevertheless, in the next years, their denunciations of corruption and other problems, as well as the performance of the *chavismo* administration, allowed the church to maintain its prestige, even in a social context of the loss of faith-

ful and growing evangelical congregations. *See also* ARCHBISHOPRIC OF VENEZUELA; COPEI.

CAUDILLISMO. Political system in which a group of caudillos exerts power directly or influences the state based in their private armies. In Venezuela, caudillismo appeared as a consequence of the institutional void generated by the **War of Independence**. As a result of the absence of institutions able to substitute for colonial structures and enact order in society, a group of military leaders imposed control in several locations through a monopoly of violence. To do so, they used their political, **economic**, and familial relationships, through which they organized their own paramilitary forces. In this way, from 1830, the caudillos established alliances or waged war against one another for control of the state. Nevertheless, there was not full anarchy. The caudillos needed the modest existing state structure and the support of economic and intellectual elites. When a caudillo was able to impose or reach consensus for control of the country, there were periods of stability. These were called national caudillos, some of whom reached high relevance, such as **José Antonio Páez**, **José Tadeo Monagas**, **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, and **Juan Vicente Gómez**.

CAUDILLO. *See* CAUDILLISMO.

CEDENO, MANUEL (Cardonal, 1780?–Carabobo field, 1821). Army officer and independence hero. He fought for the republican cause in several battles under the command of **Santiago Mariño**, **José Félix Ribas**, **José Francisco Bermúdez**, **José Tadeo Monagas**, and **Simón Bolívar**. In 1817, he entered **Angostura** with Bermúdez after a fierce and extended siege. That year, following orders from Bolívar, he imprisoned **Manuel Piar**. With the rank of general, he died during the **Carabobo Battle**. Honoring his heroic actions, Bolívar posthumously named Cedeño to a cavalry squadron that actively participated in the Southern Campaign. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

CENTENO VALLENILLA, PEDRO (Barcelona, 1904–Caracas, 1988). Painter. In 1913, he entered the **Fine Arts Academy** of Caracas. In 1926, he graduated from political science studies at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** and went abroad in diplomatic functions. He traveled to Italy, where he remained for 15 years. In Europe, he improved his artistic knowledge. The human figure, sculpturally modeled through the brushstroke, line, and color, were the center of his artistic production. Images of native people (blacks, indigenous, and white) with Greek features reflects his rigorous academic

training. Religious figures, important characters of Venezuelan history, and miscegenation were also recurring themes in his work. In 1939, he painted the new headquarters of the Venezuelan Embassy in Washington. During the 1950s, he made the murals, based on nationality, at the Legislative National Palace and the *Círculo de las Fuerzas Armadas* (**Armed Forces Club**). In 1993, the Contemporary **Art** Museum of Caracas presented an extensive retrospective of his work.

CERRO BOLÍVAR. Iron deposit located in **Bolívar State**, close to **Ciudad Bolívar**. It is 780 meters (2,559.06 feet) high. It is part of the **Guayana** shield and of the natural region called *penillanura del norte* (North Peniplain). Discovered in 1947, it is part of a group of iron deposits located in the *Serranía La Parida*. In 1948, it was renamed *Libertador*. The Orinoco Mining Company exploited it until 1975, when operations were nationalized. It has estimated reserves of 500 million tons.

CHÁVEZ FRÍAS, HUGO (Sabaneta, 1954–Caracas, 2013). Military officer and politician. He was president of Venezuela from 1999 to 2013 and leader of the so-called **Bolivarian Revolution**. He became a figure of high international resonance for his attempt to create an alternative pole to capitalist globalization.

The son of a couple of rural teachers, Chávez was part of the middle class created in the first decades of the democratic system established in 1958, so he was able to enroll in the Military Academy of Venezuela, graduating as *subteniente* (second lieutenant) in 1975. From this date until 1992, when he entered into public activity, he held several positions in the Venezuelan **Army**, reaching the position of lieutenant colonel and commander of a paratrooper battalion.

In parallel to his military life, due to his interests in politics, he pursued postgraduate studies in the Universidad Simón Bolívar in Caracas, but was not able to present his thesis. From a very young age, he had affiliations with leftist political groups that aimed to penetrate the **armed forces** after the defeat of the *lucha armada* in the 1960s. In 1982, he founded a *logia militar* (military lodge, a secret military society formed by conspirators), the *Movimiento Bolivariano 200* (MBR-200), along with other young officers. The name came from the bicentennial of the birth of **Simón Bolívar**, which was going to take place in the following year. Although not all members shared socialist views, they were all of a nationalistic nature and had roots in the **Bolivarianism** of the Venezuelan Army. The **economic** and political crisis that severely affected democracy in the 1980s increased discontent in the military and the rest of Venezuelan society. After the *Caracazo* (1989),

many concluded that the political class was absolutely corrupt and that it was necessary to establish a military government. That the army was used to control the protests and looting of these days infuriated many military officers. In addition, the army was one of the few institutions that maintained its prestige in the Venezuelan political system. All of this created the conditions for MBR-200, in combination with other conspirator groups, to attempt a military coup on **February 4, 1992**, to oust President **Carlos Andrés Pérez**. The rebellion failed, but Chávez was allowed to broadcast on **television** a message to surrender and avoid more bloodshed. This backfired for the government, as Venezuelan society saw in the young officer a savior, turning him into a highly popular figure. His phrase, “*por ahora los objetivos no han sido logrados*” (for now, the objectives have not been achieved), was understood as the promise of another insurrection. Effectively, on **November 27, 1992**, another group of high-ranking officers of the **Air Force** and **navy** led a new military coup, which was defeated as well.

Chávez remained imprisoned until President **Rafael Caldera** pardoned him in 1994, with full political rights. Among his first activities after leaving prison was to visit **Cuba**. Chávez was received with honors at the airport by Fidel Castro himself and gave a guest lecture at the University of Havana, praising Castro and the Cuban system. In Venezuela, he started a trip throughout the country, which allowed him to start gaining leadership in a society infuriated with its traditional political class, while advocating for the necessity of conducting a referendum to end Caldera’s administration and calling for a constituent assembly. Nevertheless, by 1997, his popularity in the polls was limited. Everything started to change when he entered the 1998 presidential race. He created the Movimiento Quinta República (MVR) **political party** and in alliance with groups and parties of the left and the right and other relevant people, all characterized by their antistate ideas, formed the Polo Patriótico. Essential for his presidential race was the full commitment of members of local economic elites with interests in **banking**, insurance, and mass media, who provided him with the financial, material, and media resources required to wage a nationwide political campaign. This combined with leadership crises in other political parties and erratic behavior in choosing candidates and crafting alliances. Chávez’s charisma, oratory skills, and promises to end the political class and reverse unpopular market economy reforms allowed him to rise in the polls and easily win the election with 56 percent of the vote. Rapidly, the whole of society, along with a wide group of representatives of the old political, judicial, intellectual, and economic establishment, allowed him to call for a national constituent assembly and dissolve the Congress. Even though this power was not stipulated in the Constitution, the institutions permitted him, without resistance, his unconsti-

tutional acts. Since this was a radical change, it was considered a revolution, the **Bolivarian Revolution**. Only 37 percent of registered voters effectively voted in the elections for the representatives of the Constituent Assembly in 1999. The new government obtained 52 percent of the vote, but thanks to a mathematical trick, his followers obtained 95 percent of the representation, 125 seats, leaving the opposition with only six seats. This allowed *chavismo* to approve easily the new constitution. When the new constitutions went to referendum, only 44 percent of registered voters effectively voted, being approved by 71 percent. Since then, to mark the beginning of a new era, the official name of the country became the **Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela**. Based on the new constitution, general elections were called in 2000, and Chávez was reelected with 56 percent of votes.

An unprecedented use of mass media, especially TV, through his Sunday program *Aló presidente* and a large amount of *cadenas* (obligatory broadcasts across all open TV and **radio** channels) allowed him to cement his leadership across ample sectors of the **population**. As well, his success in defeating the traditional political class in elections was seen as a popular vengeance by large numbers of Venezuelans. Nevertheless, in many groups, suspicions started to appear of his intention to take Venezuela toward communism. Even though Chávez declared many times he was not a communist, the Integral Cooperation Covenant with Cuba, signed in 2000, and his close and evident friendship with and admiration of Fidel Castro gave grounds for these fears. When the new National Assembly gave him legislative powers with the Enabling Law of 2001, many saw that their suspicions were correct, in particular in the Law on Land, Hydrocarbons, and Fishing, which had clear statist intentions. This, coupled with a lackluster economic performance since he took office in 1999, generated in the middle class, which had been a massive support until then, detachment from his project. As well, the business sector and the **Catholic Church** backed away. In particular, the executive and managerial level of **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. (PDVSA)**, feared that the company would fall into the hands of politicians, against their management values. In fact, for a long time, the political class had been denouncing the PDVSA as a “state within the state,” and they promised they would manage it better. The business association **FEDECÁMARAS**, the workers’ unions represented by the **Confederación de los Trabajadores de Venezuela**, some political parties, private mass media groups, and sectors in the Catholic Church and the armed forces started to show in public their discontent with the government. These tensions resulted in a national strike in April 2002, led by several sectors opposed to the government. Amid this national strike, on **April 11, 2002**, a massive protest in the streets of **Caracas** departed from one of the main offices of PDVSA toward the presidential palace of Miraflores, calling for

the president's resignation. In the protests, 19 people were killed by gunshots and several more were wounded, known as the *masacre del 11 de abril*. TV showed government supporters shooting from a bridge at the opposition protests. In the evening, high-ranking officers in the army, navy, and National Guard defected from the government and captured Chávez. At the end of the day, the minister of defense announced on TV that the president had resigned. Shortly after, it was announced that the head of FEDECÁMARAS, **Pedro Carmona Estanga**, was the new president. On 12 April, Carmona assumed executive control and dissolved all powers, which was considered a coup d'état. The negative reaction to this proclamation translated into popular protests, political leaders and union sectors announced on TV their discontent, and a sector of the army triggered a military coup that reinstalled Chávez to the presidency on the evening of 13 April. Nevertheless, tensions continued escalating in a climate in which the economic situation was worsening. In December 2002, the executive and managerial level of PDVSA led the so-called **Paro Petrolero** (Oil Strike), which generated serious consequences in the economy, such as failures in the domestic supply of gasoline and limitations in the export of oil. This strike was partially followed by other sectors of private business. But the government was able, within days, to restore operations at the oil company, and the strike weakened and finally was lifted in February 2003.

After these political and military tensions, Chávez was able to consolidate power, firing more than 15,000 executives, managers, and experts at PDVSA, substituting high-ranking armed forces officers loyal to the revolution in key positions, and providing weaponry and full government support to paramilitary groups in western Caracas known as *colectivos*. The dismantling of the old political system really took place in this moment, giving the army power unprecedented since the days of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. In fact, Chávez started to use battle dress and to be called *comandante* (commander). In addition, he was internationally strengthened by being seen as a democratically elected president attacked by sectors of traditional elites opposed to his reforms. Slowly, he started to develop his international image. Yet the depressed economic situation of 2003, which led to instituting an exchange control through an agency known as Consejo de Administración de Divisas (CADIVI) to avoid capital flight, made his popularity decline to 30 percent. Opposition groups assembled in Coordinadora Democrática and in other civil society groups like Súmate proposed a recall referendum on the Chávez mandate, a novel political instrument established in the Constitution of 1999. After many obstacles laid by the government, which used this time to set up the so-called **Misiones** (social programs to provide **health**, food, and **education**) and improve Chávez's popularity, the referendum was held in August 2004.

Chávez won with 59 percent of the votes. These social programs and policies leveraging high oil prices resulted in a massive transfer of resources to society through scholarships, subsidies, credits, currency overvaluation, artificial creation of public employment, massive imports, and a boom in consumption and enabled poverty levels to decrease from around 70 percent in 1998 to 29 percent. This increased the popularity of Chávez, who continued in his policy to expand public expenditure as oil prices continuously increased, exceeding 100 dollars a barrel, and by incurring massive amounts of external debt. On the other hand, the arrival of leftist governments in Latin America allowed him to make several alliances, such as **ALBA**, with which he consolidated internationally. With a discourse ever more critical toward the **United States** and capitalism, he traveled around the globe, appearing in international media and establishing alliances with Russia, China, Iran, and Syria, all the time leveraging oil revenues.

On 20 September 2006, he became a global trend in media and social networks when at the 61st **United Nations** Assembly he said the podium “*huele a azufre*” (smells like sulphur), since prior to him President George W. Bush had given a speech. Chávez accused Bush of being the devil (who, traditionally it is said, smells of sulphur). In this context, and with opposition severely weakened after the failures of 2002 and the referendum in 2004, Chávez won the 2006 presidential election with more than 60 percent of votes. Assuming the new presidential term in 2007, he declared the socialist character of his revolution, although in 2005 he already had announced its adscription to socialism.

The Nation Plan of 2007 (the traditional five-year plan being made since 1960) was called the First Socialist Plan of the Nation and aimed to reorganize the economy around the state. In 2008, he tried to unify all his forces around the Partido Socialista Unido de Venezuela, whose name was understood by many as a clear reference to the Eastern European communist parties. He then started a massive process of expropriation, returning companies to the hands of the state (more than 1,000 firms through 2016), though in the **agricultural** sector lands had been expropriated since 2002. Many of the companies privatized in the 1990s, like the telephone and the steel sector, were nationalized again, along with private companies of electricity generation and distribution. In 2007, a referendum was called to reform the constitution in a socialist sense. It was a point of inflexion in his government. Nevertheless, this time people voted against Chávez’s proposal, granting him his only electoral defeat. However, as opposition had declined to participate in the 2005 legislative elections, accusing the government of controlling the electoral institution CNE, and had no presence in the National Assembly, Chávez was able to force many of the measures people had voted against,

leveraging his absolute majority in the Congress. One of the key reforms he had asked for was indefinite reelection, which does not exist in almost any democratic regime. In 2009, he called for another referendum, and, masked with other measures, it was approved by the population. In 2008, oil prices declined dramatically, which made it difficult to maintain public spending policies, further weakened by massive corruption and accumulating inefficiencies. Expropriated land and companies diminished their production substantially, and most of them ceased to produce, which was compensated for by imports. Yet the economy became unsustainable as oil prices declined and PDVSA was unable to increase its production, with oil policy based on ever-increasing prices. In 2011, Chávez announced from Cuba, where he had a medical intervention, that he was suffering an illness, not fully known yet, but that ended up being a cancer of the intestine. Nevertheless, in August he announced he was cured and started his campaign for the 2012 election, with a substantial increase in public spending, leveraged on oil prices that once again rose in 2011, and an unprecedented increase in monetary liquidity and imports.

By 2012, the socialist economic model was in trouble. Inflation was around 20 percent, which was the average since the 1970s, despite government attempts to curb it through manipulations in Central Bank calculations. Scarcity levels were also at 20 percent (out of 100 visits to outlets, in 20 of them food and medicine products were not found). Approvals of official dollars at the exchange control rate diminished substantially, and the nonofficial dollar exchange rate, used to measure local currency strength, had depreciated almost fourfold. With the economy against him and his health deteriorating (many rumors were generated as trips to Cuba to have medical treatment increased), Chávez's popularity started to decline. In the elections of 2012, he won by a margin of 10 points (55 percent to 44 percent) against opposition leader **Henrique Capriles Radonski**, which represented a reduction of 20 points from the previous election. On 8 December 2012, Chávez appeared for the last time on a *cadena*, joined by the president of the National Assembly, Lieutenant Diosdado Cabello, and his foreign affairs minister, **Nicolás Maduro**. There he requested that, if cancer prevented him from assuming the new term, his followers should vote for Maduro. After this TV statement, he returned to Cuba and was not seen anymore. He did not assume the presidency in January 2013, which the institutions controlled by the government ignored, continuing the due mandate. Even though through a tweet he announced that in February 2013 he was again in Venezuela, he continued out of public sight. On 5 March 2013, his death was announced. By that time, poverty, the reduction of which was claimed to be one of his major achievements, had started to increase again by 6.2 points to 32 percent, according to the regional UN agency for Latin America, ECLAC.

CHOCRÓN, ISAAC (Maracay, 1930–Caracas, 2011). Playwright. Along with **José Ignacio Cabrujas** and Román Chalbaud, he formed the so-called Holy Trinity of Venezuelan theater, which transformed the nation's **performing arts** during the 1960s and 1970s. Although his background studies were in international relations and economics at Columbia University and the University of Manchester, the most important of his work was in the theatrical field. Director of the School of Art at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** and **Teresa Carreño** Theater in **Caracas**, he authored abundant plays along with theatrical and novelistic work. His main pieces include *Tric Trac* (1967), *La Revolución* (1971), and *Clipper* (1987).

CHIRINOS, JOSÉ LEONARDO. *See* UPRISING OF CHIRINOS.

CÍRCULO DE BELLAS ARTES. Cultural group initiated in 1912 by young painters demanding a revision of teaching methods at the **Fine Arts Academy**. They called for *ampleness without imposition of trends* and protested **Antonio Herrera Toro's** management. Some of its members were **Manuel Cabré**, **Armando Reverón**, **Rafael Monasterios**, and Antonio Edmundo Monsanto, who contributed to the renewal of art by focusing on landscape as a constant aesthetic motif. The circle also included **journalists**, writers, poets, **musicians**, and art admirers. The group started gradually dissolving by 1917. *See also* VISUAL ARTS.

CISNEROS, JOSÉ LUIS (Venezuela, ?–?). Voyager and author of *Descripción exacta de la provincia de Benezuela*, published in 1764, an extensive description of Venezuelan geography and **economy**. Most information about his life is unknown, although in the book he portrays himself as a broker, traveling between the **province of Venezuela** and New Granada for the **Compañía Guipuzcoana**. The book describes geographic and economic aspects of the province of Venezuela, especially cattle raising, **agriculture**, and trade; likewise, natural resources, wildlife, and the human landscape. References abound in the text to the commercial activities of the Guipuzcoana Company. This publication made him one of the first Venezuelan *criollos* to write about his own homeland.

CISNEROS BERMÚDEZ, DIEGO (Havana, Cuba, 1911–Caracas, 1980). **Businessman**, son of a Cuban physician and a Venezuelan housewife. After the death of his father, his family immigrated to **Trinidad**, where he completed his education. In 1928, his family moved to **Caracas**, and due to his English proficiency, he was hired by the Royal **Bank** of Canada. Some months later, he started to work at a Chrysler agency. Along with his brother Antonio, he bought a truck that was transformed into a bus. That was the

start of one of the most important business conglomerates in Venezuela. By 1939, they sold their 400-unit bus line and became agents for Studebaker in Venezuela. In 1940, they also became agents of Pepsi-Cola. In 1960, he bought Televisa, a **television** station, and renamed it Venevisión. In 1970, his holdings were integrated under the name Organización Diego Cisneros, with interests in a range of businesses, including entertainment, retailing, soft drinks, and food distributing. After important strategic changes, today Organización Cisneros is one of the most important corporate groups in Latin America. *See also* CISNEROS RENDILES, GUSTAVO.

CISNEROS RENDILES, GUSTAVO (Caracas, 1945–). Businessman and leader of the Cisneros Organization, a **business** conglomerate that includes the Venevisión and Venevisión Plus **television** channels, the **Miss Venezuela** Organization, the Leones del Caracas **baseball** team, and other entities. Son of the entrepreneur **Diego Cisneros Bermúdez**, he was educated in the **United States** and at only 23 years old was placed at the head of the family business, then already constituting a significant group of companies. From the 1980s, he started a successful internationalization of the group, becoming a relevant international figure with close ties in the political and business worlds. In 2016, according to *Forbes*, he ranked 906 among the richest people in the world, with assets worth about two billion dollars. He is married to Patricia Phelps, a descendant of **William H. Phelps Prince**, and they are both involved in numerous philanthropic activities and in support of the arts, mainly through the Fundación Cisneros. For this reason, he sits on the board of directors of the MoMA in New York.

CIUDAD BOLÍVAR. Formerly known as Angostura. Founded in 1764, when the old Santo Tome de **Guayana**, founded in 1595 by **Antonio de Berrio**, was moved to the narrowest part of the **Orinoco River**, from which the Angostura (Spanish for “narrows”) name derived. In 1842, the city was renamed Ciudad Bolívar. There the **Angostura Congress** was held in 1819, at which **Simón Bolívar** delivered his famous **Angostura Address**. This congress created **Gran Colombia**. During the 19th century, Ciudad Bolívar was one of the most dynamic and important economic settlements in the country. Being the main port of the Orinoco River and connecting the **llanos** (plains) region with the sea trading routes of the Caribbean and Atlantic, Angostura was one of the most important geo-historical regions of Venezuela. Beginning in the 1930s, the **economic** importance of the Orinoco began to decline as the new **oil** economy did not require this route and the products exported through it diminished substantially. And when the relevance of the Orinoco connection returned due to the **mining** and the steel industry, the new center

was **Ciudad Guayana**. Currently, Ciudad Bolívar is an important historical district and tourist venue.

CIUDAD GUAYANA. Located at the confluence of the Caroní and **Orinoco Rivers** in **Bolívar State**, it is rooted in Puerto Ordaz, established in 1952 as a camp and port devoted to the exploitation of **iron** by the Orinoco **Mining Company**. In 1961, the Venezuelan state decreed its foundation as Ciudad Guayana along with the port and town of San Félix. Until then, the managers and engineers of Orinoco Mining, mostly Americans, lived in Puerto Ordaz and the blue-collar workers in San Félix. **Corporación Venezolana de Guayana** was in charge of urbanizing and integrating the two areas. By 2011, it had 1,080,000 inhabitants. It is an important basic industry center, operating several aluminum-, steel-, alumina-, and iron-processing facilities, along with managing the hydroelectric generation business.

COCOA. Originally from America, some studies pinpoint a possible site of provenance as the south **Maracaibo Lake** region. It was cultivated and consumed by the **original tribes** in Venezuela, which is revealed in the first chronicles made by the Spanish. In the middle of the 17th century and throughout all of the 18th, it became the major export product, allowing for the creation of a powerful creole elite, known as *grandes cacao*s or *mantuanos*. Its production rapidly expanded to include the **Andean Region** south of Maracaibo Lake, the lowlands of Barlovento and the valleys of the central coast, **Sucre State**, and other areas along the coast of the country. Its prestige in international markets grew rapidly for its high quality, both in Europe and in America, stimulating an export commerce between Venezuelan ports and Veracruz, Mexico. This also facilitated smuggling activities with Dutch, French, and British islands in the Caribbean Sea. Exports of cocoa to Mexico had such a high growth that they surpassed exports to Spain. This situation changed with the introduction of the **Compañía Guipuzcoana**, which decreased substantially the profits of the creole elite, leading to revolts against this institution until its disappearance in the 1780s. The establishment of free trade in the colonies broke the monopoly of Mexico and Venezuela, changing again commercialization perspectives. The start of the **War of Independence** impacted **agricultural** production, including for cocoa. By the end of the war, **coffee** production increased fast and overtook cocoa as the largest export product. Nevertheless, during the rest of the 19th century until the 1930s, cocoa exporting continued to be relevant for the local **economy**. In spite of the **oil** boom, production of cocoa and its manufactured products continues, and Venezuelan cocoa is commonly held to be among the best worldwide.

CODAZZI, AGUSTÍN (Lugo, Italy, 1793–Espíritu Santo, Colombia, 1858). Geographer, explorer, and military officer. In 1830, due to the separation of **Gran Colombia**, **José Antonio Páez** entrusted him with the creation of a completely new map of Venezuela with geographical, physical, and statistical data for each region. Contributors to the assignment were the artist **Carmelo Fernández** and the historians **Rafael María Baralt** and Ramón Díaz. After large explorations of the territory, in 1839 Codazzi's work was presented at the National Congress, which funded its publication. In 1840, he traveled to Paris, where, under his supervision, *Resumen de la Geografía de Venezuela*, *Mapa general de Venezuela*, and *Atlas físico y político de la República* were published. In Europe, encouraged by **Alexander von Humboldt**, he formulated a colonization project for Venezuela with German families (the **Colonia Tovar**). His remains rest in the **National Pantheon** in **Caracas**.

CODING. *See* LAW SYSTEM.

COFFEE. It arrived to **Venezuela** in the 1730s through Spanish missionaries established in the **Guayana Region**. Its cultivation is attributed to the Jesuit priest **Joseph Gumilla**, who started the first crop on the banks of the Caroní River. During the 1770s, it was introduced to the nearby **Caracas** haciendas of Blandín, La Floresta, and San Felipe. Soon cultivation extended to the main Caracas Valley and other surrounding areas. By the end of the 18th century, it started to displace **cocoa** as the largest export crop. The main cocoa estates gave space to coffee along the coast and in the west of the country. From 1830, exports increase substantially, taking Venezuela to second place among exporters after **Brazil**. Its cultivation in the **Andean Region** allowed for the establishing of **commercial houses**, which monopolized its export. In the beginning of the 20th century, production levels of coffee were maintained in the states of **Lara**, **Portuguesa**, **Cojedes**, **Táchira**, **Mérida**, **Trujillo**, **Monagas**, and **Yaracuy** in spite of **oil** industry onset and high volatility in prices. As well, by initiative of the nation, the Fondo Nacional del Café was created, along with the Campaña Cafetalera Nacional, focused on maintaining export quality. By 1996, according to statistics of the International Coffee Organization, exports were around 504,000 quintals. By 2001, they were reduced by 41.3 percent, and currently, due to the systematic policy of expropriation promoted by **Hugo Chávez's** regime, Venezuela is not able to supply domestic demand. Exports have been exchanged for massive imports from Nicaragua, Brazil, and El Salvador.

COJEDES (STATE). Located in the north-center of the country, it has an area of 14,800 square kilometers (1.62 percent of the country) and a popula-

tion of 323,165 (1.11 percent of the country). Its capital is San Carlos. It has nine municipalities (San Carlos, Anzoátegui, Falcón, Girardot, Ricuarte, and Tinaco, among others) and 15 parishes. The state was established in 1855 as Cojedes Province, and in 1864 it changed into a state with the federal territorial division. Cojedes has two big natural features, the mountain system of the Coastal Range, accounting for 6,113.4 square kilometers (41.31 percent of the state), and the *llanos* (plains), with 8,686.6 square kilometers (58.69 percent of the state). The economy is based on cattle raising and **agriculture**. Before the conquest, the state had diverse **original** ethnicities, like the Guíqueries, Tamanacos, Arawakos, Caquetios, and Jirahara-Ayamanes.

COLINA, ALEJANDRO (Caracas, 1901–Caracas, 1976). Sculptor. He is the most representative exponent of the national indigenous sculpture. In 1913, he studied at the **Fine Arts Academy**. In the 1920s, he lived among **original people** for around eight years, a time that would mark his future work. In the middle of the 1940s, he developed a monumental style of sculpture focused on indigenous themes, such as *El conjuro de Caricuao* (1968), *El indio Tiuna* (1951), and the most famous of all of them, *María Lionza* (1951).

COLL Y PRATT, NARCISO (Cornellá del Terri, Spain, 1754–Madrid, Spain, 1822). Second archbishop of Caracas. He arrived in Caracas in 1810, a few weeks after the events of **April 19**, and witnessed the dramatic events of the **War of Independence**. With political skill, he assumed the defense of the interests of the **Catholic Church**, which led him to obey the civil authorities of the day, both patriotic and royal. In 1816, he was called to Spain to explain his conduct. In 1818, he wrote an extensive and detailed memorial for the king on the events in Venezuela and his performance during the period, which represents one of the most important testimonies of those episodes. In 1821, he was vindicated and his return to Caracas authorized, but the political changes left by the **Carabobo Battle** suspended his travel plans. His reports to the Spanish king and to the pope were published in 1960 as *Memoriales sobre la Independencia de Venezuela*. They are considered key sources for the study of the period.

COLOMBIA, RELATIONS WITH. Venezuela and Colombia share a common history since colonial times. From the beginning of the 16th century, the Spanish Crown created different political-territorial units that shared the territory of what after independence would be the two different countries. They share a history of achieving independence, with **Simón Bolívar** at the forefront, and then became one nation, **Gran Colombia**. After dissolution of the union in 1830, the general relationship between the two countries has oscillated between cooperation and bilateral struggle.

The frontier dispute goes back much further than the founding of the modern nations and can be traced to the difficulties encountered in shaping the **boundaries** between the colonies belonging to the Spanish Crown. During the 19th century, the definition of the common border was the main issue between the two nations. Although negotiations began in 1833, it would not be until 1891 with the *Laudo Español* that they began to solve the border problem. However, Venezuela considered the award damaging to its territorial integrity, so they agreed to attend a new arbitration. In 1922, the *Laudo Suizo* ratified the results of the Spanish Award, and in 1941 the *Tratado de Fronteras y Navegacion de Ríos Comunes* was signed by **Eleazar López Contreras**. Since then, the relationship has evolved with ups and downs, especially with respect to maritime territory in the **Gulf of Venezuela**. In 1951, Colombia recognized Venezuela's sovereignty over the **Los Monjes Archipelago**, located in the area. The lowest point in the bilateral relationship occurred in 1987, during the **crisis of the Caldas corvette**. The confrontation was resolved through diplomatic channels, but the maritime dispute remained.

During the decades of the 1970s and 1980s, the **oil** feast and the relative stability of the Venezuelan **economy** attracted the inhabitants of the neighboring country, leading hundreds of thousands of Colombians to immigrate to Venezuela in search of better opportunities. The domestic armed conflict between the Colombian government and guerrilla groups has also caused problems between the two countries. Illegal military incursions by the two **armed forces** into the territory of the other have been frequent since the conflict in Colombia intensified in the 1980s. Armed guerrilla groups also frequently entered Venezuela, and the conflict brought the forced displacement of civilians in Colombia and Venezuela. Along the common border of 2,210 kilometers, smuggling flows from one territory to the other depending on supply and demand. Illegal products range from gasoline, drugs, and weapons to stolen vehicles. Since the arrival of the **Bolivarian Revolution** in 1999, relations have fluctuated due to the ideological differences separating the two governments. From more than seven billion dollars, **economic** exchange has dropped dramatically to less than one billion. The Venezuelan government has politicized boundary issues and has implemented the extreme measure of closing the border at numerous opportunities and for long periods as a method of political pressure on the government of Colombia, or as an excuse to cover its economic problems.

COLONIA TOVAR. Town located in the northeast of **Aragua State**, founded in 1843 by a group of immigrants from the then independent state of Baden, later incorporated into Germany. In order to achieve **José Antonio**

Páez's agricultural program, **Agustín Codazzi**, encouraged by **Alexander von Humboldt**, formulated the colonization project on lands of **Martín Tovar Ponte**. Located 42 kilometers west of **Caracas** and at an altitude of 1,700 meters above sea level, it is characterized by having maintained the cultural imprint of its German origin. It depends on **agriculture** and tourism.

COLUMBUS, CHRISTOPHER (Genoa, Italy, c. 1451–Valladolid, Spain, 1506). Explorer, voyager, and governor of Santo Domingo. He is known as the Americas' discoverer because of his incorporation of American territory into European geographic knowledge, allowing for the beginning of conquest and colonization. The categories "discovery" and "discoverer" currently generate controversy due to the ethnocentric load they carry. During his first two voyages to America (1492 and 1493), he arrived at the Bahamas, **Cuba**, Puerto Rico, and the island of La Española. After having begun the colonization of La Española, he returned to Spain to organize a third trip with the objective of finding a commercial route that would take him to Asia. On 30 May 1498, he sailed from Sanlúcar with six ships, heading farther south than on previous voyages. After passing through Madeira, La Gomera, and Cabo Verde, he finally arrived on 31 July on the island he baptized with the name **Trinidad**. On 2 August, he passed near the mouth of the **Orinoco River**, and on 3 August he landed in Macuro, present-day **Sucre State**, being the first continental territory to which he arrived. Fascinated by the landscape, he believed he was in the Garden of Eden, so he named the place Tierra de Gracia (Land of Grace). He continued sailing toward the north by the islands of **Margarita**, Coche, and **Cubagua**, bound for La Española. His letter describing what he believed to be the idyllic and naive life of the **aborigines** played a very important role in the European imagination in creating the idea of utopia.

COMISIÓN PRESIDENCIAL PARA LA REFORMA DEL ESTADO (COPRE). Convened in 1984 by President **Jaime Lusinchi**, the 35-member commission was chaired by **Ramón J. Velásquez** until 1987. Its main objective was to formulate ideas that contributed to the modernization (or "reform") of the state, in order to make it more democratic and efficient. The proposals included direct popular election of Venezuelan state governors and mayors, replacing the previous system of voters choosing a single party slate for all. The proposals also included increased democratization of internal party procedures and regulation of public and private financing of **political parties**. Put aside by Lusinchi, some of the recommendations were finally implemented by President **Carlos Andrés Pérez** after 1989, helping to renew the political system.

COMMERCIAL HOUSES (*CASAS COMERCIALES*). By the end of the 18th century, Spain decided to open to international commerce, including its Hispanic America territories. This action allowed, with certain restriction, the settlement of foreign merchants in **Venezuela**. In the early years of independence and during the war, the first commercial *casas* were established, most of British and German origin. After independence, others followed from France, the **United States**, Italy, and the Dutch Antilles. They were based in the major ports and cities, such as La Guaira, **Maracaibo**, Puerto Cabello, and **Ciudad Bolívar**. They dealt with the export of **agricultural** products from Venezuela like **coffee**, **cocoa**, cotton, and hides and the importing of a variety of goods demanded by local consumers. They were able to profit by financing **agriculture** producers and by paying for their produce in silver and selling it abroad for **gold**. These commercial houses were tied to merchant families like Blohm, Boulton, Zingg, Abbo, Mocatta, Barbarito, Behrens, Chiossone, Lesseur, Burguera, Steinworth, and Hellmund. During the first decades of the 20th century, many of these *casas* suffered demise during the world wars, international financial crises, and the fall of agriculture as the Venezuelan **oil** industry developed. Despite this, some of them are still in operation.

COMMUNIST PARTY OF VENEZUELA (PCV). **Political party** founded on 5 March 1931. It has been one of the most important parties in contemporary Venezuelan history, being the oldest in the country. It was created by Venezuelan Aurelio Fortoul, a communist militant whom the Caribbean Bureau of the Third International sent to Venezuela for this purpose. American Joseph Kornfeder and Venezuelans Carmen Fortoul and Guillermo Hernández Rodríguez, graduates of the Leninist School of Painting in Moscow, helped Fortoul in the process. Shortly before, in 1926, a group of Venezuelan communist exiles in Mexico, including **Gustavo Machado** and **Salvador de la Plaza**, founded the Partido Revolucionario Venezolano (Venezuelan Revolutionary Party). Over time, the members of this organization were integrated into the PCV. Although the PCV remained clandestine until 1945, it participated actively in the process of political opening beginning with **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s death. From 1936, through party fronts such as the Progressive Republican Party and the Venezuelan Popular Union, and with a presence in trade unions and in the media through numerous intellectuals, the party gained national influence. In 1946, it underwent a short division into two parties, which was solved when a united front was presented for the elections of that year. The PCV obtained 3.6 percent of the votes, and two deputies could hold seats in the National Constituent Assembly. Outlawed by the **military dictatorship** in 1948, its militants ac-

tively participated in the resistance against the regime, suffering torture and death. Legalized again in 1958, in 1961 their members decided to support the *lucha armada*, the guerrilla struggle to seize power. This produced a new ban in 1962 and the imprisonment of many of its affiliates. After the failure of the armed struggle, in 1967 the PCV decided to leave the violent path, participating in the elections of 1968 with a front organization, the Union para Avanzar. It was legalized again in 1969 under the presidency of **Rafael Caldera**. By 1970, as a result of the guerrilla experience and criticism of the Soviet model, fueled by the invasion of Czechoslovakia, an important number of affiliates, led by **Teodoro Petkoff**, abandoned the party. These people later created the Movimiento al Socialismo, which quickly gained great visibility and electoral growth. For the 1973 elections, the PCV formed an alliance with the Movimiento Electoral del Pueblo and other movements but did not reach more than 5 percent of the vote. In the following years, the party continued losing followers and influence. In the 1988 elections, the party reached only 0.8 percent of the vote. Added to this was the smear of communism after the collapse of the Soviet system. Nevertheless, the PCV managed to recover when in 1993 it supported the candidacy of Rafael Caldera, who was by then separated from COPEI, making this the first time in its history a candidate of the party reached the presidency. Since 1999, the party has been a constant ally of **Hugo Chávez**, which allowed him to significantly increase his flow of votes. In 2008, the PCV refused to join the United Socialist Party of Venezuela, conceived as a unitary party of the **Bolivarian Revolution**. Since then, it has succeeded in attracting supporters of *chavismo* who are nevertheless critical of the government. In 2012, it obtained 3.29 percent of the vote, one of its highest votes in history, and in 2013 it got 1.89 percent.

COMPAÑÍA GUIPUZCOANA. Name by which the Royal Company of Caracas is known. The common name *Guipuzcoana* derives from Guipuzcoa, in the Basque region of Spain, where it was based. Created in 1728 as a chartered company, set up by the Spanish Crown with private merchants, the company was awarded commercial privileges to serve the **province of Caracas**. The enterprise also had the purpose of eliminating smuggling of Venezuelan agrarian products, in particular **cocoa**, which led to opposition from local **creole** whites, who benefited directly from the illegal trade. The company was accused of monopolizing and smuggling themselves the local products. The resistance of local landlords to the company started with the rebellions of Zambo Andresote (**Andrés López del Rosario**) in 1732 and **Juan Francisco de León** between 1749 and 1751. In 1785, the Spanish king declared officially the end of its activities in Venezuela.

CONFEDERACIÓN DE LOS TRABAJADORES DE VENEZUELA (CTV). It is the main institution of Venezuelan unionism. It was created in 1947 by the National Congress, which changed the old structure of the Confederación Venezolana de Trabajadores founded in 1936. The first committee was composed of members of **Acción Democrática**: Juan Herrera, Francisco Olivo, and Ramón Quijada, among others. The CTV has been a helpful organism for the achievement of national politics that favor workers, for example, the creation of the Banco de los Trabajadores de Venezuela.

CONGRESS OF 1811. First Constitutional Congress of Venezuela. It was called to decide the best kind of government for Venezuela during the captivity of King Ferdinand VII. They decided, after several sessions, on the independence of Venezuela, promulgating it on **July 5, 1811**, in the Chapel of Santa Rosa de Lima in **Caracas** (the signing of the document that collected the act occurred a few days later). The new republic would be called the American Confederation of Venezuela. In addition, the Congress drafted the **Constitution** of the **United States of Venezuela** of 1811. Transferred later to **Valencia**, the Congress was held until 6 April 1812, when it was dissolved due to the fall of the **First Republic**.

CONSERVATIVE OLIGARCHY. Name that Venezuelan historiography assigns to the period dominated by the Partido Conservador (Conservative Party) between 1830 and 1848. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

CONSERVATIVE PARTY. *See* CONSERVATIVE OLIGARCHY; POLITICAL PARTIES.

CONSTITUTIONS. The history of the constitutions of Venezuela begins in the independence period. The formation of the republic required a foundation, so the Venezuelan constituents subscribed to the **Constitution of 1811**, which established the basis of a federal state, following the American system. Nevertheless, in 1819, in **Angostura**, another norm was formed in response to the needs of war, and in 1821 another constitution was drafted and signed, this time turning to a centralist state (Constitución de Cúcuta). In 1830, once the Republic of Colombia (or **Gran Colombia**) was dissolved, another constitution was promulgated under the government of **José Antonio Páez**, in which the central-federal system was established. At the same time, 27 years later, during the administration of **José Tadeo Monagas**, a new constitution draft was enacted with the intention of authorizing his immediate reelection and abolishing the death penalty for political offenses. At the end of the **Federal War** (1859–1863) and the triumph of **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**, a new

constitution was enacted in 1864 establishing a federal system. Nevertheless, its validity ended with the sanction of the Constitution of 1874 during the first government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, and this last had another turn with the **Swiss Constitution** of 1881, through which the *guzmancismo* reaffirmed his hegemony. In 1891, during the presidential term of **Raimundo Andueza Palacio**, the Federal Council was eliminated, returning to the direct election of the president, with the presidential term extended to four years. In 1893, **Joaquín Crespo** promulgated a new law in which the centralization process was strengthened. In 1901 and 1904, **Cipriano Castro** sanctioned two new constitutions. During **Juan Vicente Gómez's** administration, the country would have the greatest number of constitutions promulgated under the same presidency: in 1909, 1914, 1922, 1925, 1928, 1929, and 1931. All those changes, as in the recent past, were made to make new political situations fit the constitutional frame. In this case, Gómez used constitutional adjustments to remain in power and execute their guidelines legally. After finishing the long *gomecista* hegemony, another constitution was elaborated in 1936 (reformed in 1945), under premises that looked for the recognition of some individual freedoms. During the **Trienio** (1945–1948), a new political conception was established in the Constitution of 1947, in which the welfare state prevailed and citizens' rights were extended, as was the universal, direct, and secret vote for elections, including women and those who couldn't read. In 1953, the **military dictatorship** sanctioned its own constitution, in which some points subscribed to in 1936 were taken into consideration again. After 1958, when the **República Civil** period began the drive toward democratic management, the Constitution of 1961 was established, reinstating considerations of 1947, such as extending public freedoms and giving force to the division of powers. This constitution had amendments in 1973 and in 1983. Finally, in 1999, a new constitution was signed, currently in force and reformed in 2009. In support of the **Bolivarian Revolution**, some citizen rights were extended, with an emphasis on the recognition of the rights of **indigenous** societies, children, and **women** and strengthening the place of workers.

CONVIT, JACINTO (Caracas, 1913–Caracas, 2014). Physician and **scientist**. He developed the vaccine against leprosy. In 1938, he received the degree of doctor in medical sciences at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**. He also studied at Columbia University and the University of New Orleans. He had a long teaching career at the UCV as well as in the Vargas Hospital and at the Leper Colony of Cabo Blanco in **Vargas State**. Thanks to his work in the research for a vaccine against leprosy, Venezuela became a training center in leprosy control. Those activities led him to obtain the 1987 Prince of Asturias Award for his scientific and technical achievements. In

1988, he was nominated for the Nobel Prize in **Medicine**. In 1980, he became a member of the National Academy of Medicine of Venezuela.

COPEI. Political party. Also known as the Social Christian Party, it takes its name *COPEI* from the acronym for Comité de Organización Política Electoral Independiente. The party, organized within the framework of Christian humanism, was founded in 1946, with **Rafael Caldera** as its leader. The party takes the color green as its symbol. In 1958, COPEI was part of the **Pacto de Puntofijo**, along with **Acción Democrática (AD)** and **Unión Republicana Democrática**. Caldera was the presidential candidate for COPEI on five occasions, being elected for the term 1969–1973. In 1978, **Luis Herrera Campins** was elected president for the term 1979–1983. From 1973 to 1994, the party maintained political power in Venezuela in a bipartisan manner with AD.

CORO (CITY). Located in the northwest of the country, it is the capital of **Falcón State**. It has a **population** of 284,266. Founded as Santa Ana of Coro in 1527 by **Juan de Ampies** and the **aboriginal** chieftain Manaure, soon after it became the seat of power of the **Welser** government (1528–1546) and the capital of the **province of Venezuela** until 1577. In 1815, the **province of Coro** was established. This city prospered due to its agrarian activities and the proximity of the port, including smuggling activities, and close contact with the Netherlands Antilles (Aruba, Curaçao, and Bonaire). The contact with the Antilles also enabled an important trade in **slaves**. During the 19th century, some Jews arrived from Aruba and Curaçao, developing commercial, artisanal, and liberal activities. In 1859, the city played a major role in the beginning of the **Federal War**, led by its own **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**. The province was promoted to Coro State until 1874, when it was renamed Falcón State with Coro as capital. This territory has a large presence of industries related to food, beverages, and cereal processing. Due to its colonial architecture, in 1993 Coro and La Vela were declared a UNESCO World Heritage Site.

CORO (PROVINCE). Political-territorial entity existing from 1815 to 1864 in the current territory of **Falcón State**. Coro was part of the **province of Caracas** when in 1810 it organized an independent government. Loyal to the king, it fought in the revolution and was rewarded by Ferdinand VII by being nominated as a province separate from Caracas. During **Gran Colombia**, it was incorporated into the **Maracaibo** Department. In 1859, it was the first province to become a federal state, with the name of Coro State until 1874.

CORPORACIÓN VENEZOLANA DE GUAYANA (CVG). Founded in 1960 by President **Rómulo Betancourt**. Its objective was to steward public-sector activities in the region of **Guayana (Bolívar State)** and to regulate the private sector. It was born as an autonomous institute reporting directly to the Executive Office, with its own budget and independence of action and decision to set up a growth engine for the development of the region and Venezuela. It made studies of resources in Guayana, developed and organized the hydroelectric potential of the Caroní River, and promoted the industrial development of the region. The program implemented in Guayana generated across the country an interest in regional development planning. For the first time, regions were actively included in national development, and CVG served as a model for the creation of other corporations in the rest of the country. It had subsidiary companies in the sector of hydroelectric generation (EDELCA), aluminum and bauxite (Alcasa, Venalum, Alucasa, Bauxilum), **iron** and steel (Ferrominera Orinoco, Orinoco Iron, Sidor), **mining** (Minerven), and wood (Proforca), among others. Politics and corruption made most of these companies unprofitable. By the mid-1990s, it was decided to privatize most of them, which was achieved for some of the steel sector. Nevertheless, in the 2000s, **Hugo Chávez's** regime reversed this measure, deepening polarization and corruption.

CORREO DEL ORINOCO. It was a newspaper founded by **Simón Bolívar** on 27 June 1818 in order to defend through ideas the patriotic cause. By that time, the *Gazeta de Caracas* was ruled by the royalists, and it was necessary to counteract its information. In that sense, the publication became the republicans' most effective propaganda organism. It was printed in three languages, Spanish, English, and French. Andrés Roderick was its editor. Although Francisco Antonio Zea was the first director of the journal, he was substituted by several important men, such as **Juan Germán Roscio** and **José Rafael Revenga**. It released 133 issues throughout its existence, coming to an end on 23 May 1822.

CORTÉS DE MADARIAGA, JOSÉ (Santiago, Chile, 1766–Riohacha, Colombia 1826). Cleric, tribune ruler, writer, orator, politician, and independence leader. In 1788, he was ordained as a priest in Santiago, Chile. In 1802, he arrived in Venezuela. On **April 19, 1810**, he was the main participant in the resignation of **Vicente de Emparan** as general captain of Venezuela. Facing Emparan as a representative of the clergy, he ordered him to resign. Before making a decision, Emparan appeared on the balcony of City Hall and asked the expectant crowd at Plaza Mayor if they wanted him to continue as

governor. Cortés de Madariaga, who had followed him, made a negative sign with his finger on his back, to which the crowd responded, “No, we don’t want to!” Once he heard this exclamation, Emparan presented his resignation. After these events, a new government was established under the name of **Junta Suprema Conservadora de los Derechos de Fernando VII**, with Cortés as a representative of the clergy. In 1811, he was sent as patriotic commissioner to Nueva Granada and achieved the signing of the first Venezuelan diplomatic document, the Treaty of Alliance and Federation between Cundinamarca and Venezuela. In 1812, after the fall of the **First Republic**, he was imprisoned and taken to Spain. He was released in 1815. In 1820, he joined the expedition of General Mariano Montilla against Riohacha and Santa Marta, establishing his residence there until his death.

COSA, JUAN DE LA (Santoña, Spain, ?–Turbaco, Colombia, 1510). Navigator, cartographer, and explorer. He accompanied **Christopher Columbus** on his first and second voyages. As a result of this experience, he created a map of the West Indies. With this information, very privileged at the time, he obtained the resources to join the sailor **Alonso de Ojeda** and set out on a journey with the purpose of doing business, using procedures like *rescate* (bartering with the **indigenous** people), and discovered new territories. **Amerigo Vespucci**, part of the crew, came up with the name **Venezuela** when he noticed the signature *palafitos* in the **Gulf of Venezuela**. Back in Spain, he made the first world map in history, in which appears what was known of America according to the information gathered by the travelers. Already famous as a cartographer, he returned to South America with **Rodrigo de Bastidas** in 1500. He filled various administrative positions in the present territories of Panama and **Colombia**. He died during a fight with the indigenous people.

CREOLE. It is a type of language native to the Caribbean, a product of the combination of European with several African languages. During the 19th century, Antillean immigrants brought it to Venezuela, especially to the **Oriente** and **Guayana**. Although today it has practically disappeared, some people still speak it on the Paria Peninsula (**Sucre State**).

CREOLE PETROLEUM CORPORATION. Subsidiary of Standard Oil of New Jersey, present-day ExxonMobil. Standard Oil started operations in Venezuela in 1921 when it explored concessions in the **Oriente** (eastern) Venezuela as Standard Oil de Venezuela. In 1923, Standard Oil of Indiana also started operations when subsidiary Lago Petroleum Company started to explore concessions on the eastern coast of the **Maracaibo Lake** basin, in

western Venezuela, and pioneered **oil** drilling offshore in Maracaibo Lake. After successful findings of oil, Lago Petroleum built a large refinery in Aruba, close to the Venezuelan coast. By 1928, the Creole Syndicate, which grouped several **oil concession** contracts, was fully controlled by Standard Oil of New Jersey and changed its name to Creole Petroleum Corporation. In 1929, Standard Oil de Venezuela discovered a large oil reservoir in Quiriquire, close to Caripito (**Monagas State**). In 1932, facing issues in marketing Venezuelan oil in the **United States** due to oversupply from Texas oil fields, Standard Oil of Indiana sold Lago Petroleum Company to Standard Oil of New Jersey. Since then, the latter became the largest oil producer in Venezuela until **oil nationalization** in 1975, leaving Compañía **Shell** in second place. In the 1940s, Standard Oil of New Jersey was able to successfully negotiate with the Venezuelan government the Hydrocarbon Law reform in 1943, and going forward started an aggressive plan to increase exploration, production, and refining in Venezuela, consolidating all its subsidiaries in 1944 under the Creole Petroleum Company (except its participation in **Mene Grande Oil Company**). Creole became the most important oil exporter and profit center for Standard Oil of New Jersey worldwide. Creole started an ambitious program of corporate social responsibility initiatives to integrate with Venezuelan society, involving efforts in culture, science, housing, **education**, and sports, through the Creole Foundation. The corporation continued operations in Venezuela until 1975, when nationalization took place, and from 1976 onward Exxon continued providing technological assistance to **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. (PDVSA)**. Exxon returned to oil exploration and production in Venezuela in 1998 upon its merger with oil multinational Mobil, which participated as a strategic partner with PDVSA and the German oil firm Veba Oel to develop the **Orinoco Oil Belt** as part of the Cerro Negro Project. In 2007, when the Venezuelan government seized ExxonMobil assets, the multinational sued the nation in international arbitration courts.

CRESPO, JOAQUÍN (San Francisco de Cara, 1841–La Mata Carmelera, 1898). Military officer, politician, and president of Venezuela on two occasions (1884–1886 and 1892–1898). He started his military career in 1858 as an ordinary private. Due to his services during the **Federal War**, by 1864 he was already promoted to general. Between 1864 and 1868, he was elected deputy to the National Congress. In 1868, he fought the **Revolución Azul**, following **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** leadership. Between 1876 and 1877, during Guzmán Blanco's **Septenio**, he was in charge of the presidency. He was a key figure in Guzmán Blanco's return to power to start the **Quinquenio** period. In 1884, the Federal Board named him constitutional president for the period 1884–1886. In 1892, he opposed to the *continuismo* of **Raimundo**

Andueza Palacio, who wanted to remain in power beyond his presidential period. Crespo started the **Revolución Legalista**, which took him to power for a second time (1892–1898). In 1897, he gave support to his dauphin, **Ignacio Andrade**, who won rigged elections. This forced his opponent, **José Manuel Hernández**, into insurrection. Crespo took his army and went out to defend Andrade's presidency, but in a battle held near a place called Mata Carmelera he was hit by a bullet and died soon after. During his first government, under the shadow of Guzmán Blanco, he confronted a big **economic** crisis characterized by a fall in **coffee** production, a halt in commercial activity, and a lobster plague that diminished the harvest, which increased poverty and the price of food. He also faced a political intrigue when he refused to distance himself from Guzmán Blanco as some member of his cabinet proposed. This generated an internal crisis that made **Francisco González Guinán** and **Juan Pablo Rojas Paul** leave the government. Ending the period was the *aclamación*, in which several signatures were collected from citizens requesting that Guzmán Blanco come back to Venezuela to assume another presidential period (the **Bienio**). During his second administration, Castro again faced an economic crisis, this time related to a conflict between the National **Bank** and the government. Once in office, Crespo did not recognize the debt contracted by the previous regime, which had taken out a loan to finance the fight against his insurrection. He also confiscated the properties of about 340 public servants who work under Andueza Palacio's administration, some of them bankers. The crisis, however, finished in 1893 with an amnesty and the restitution of their goods. That year he started to build the palace of Miraflores, which would be the future seat of the executive. At the end of his term, a conflict with Great Britain broke out due to the dispossession of the **Guayana Esequiba** in 1895. This problem was taken to a tribunal in The Hague in 1897, but the dispute remains unresolved even today. *See also* LIBERALISMO AMARILLO.

CRISIS OF THE CALDAS CORVETTE. Diplomatic crisis with **Colombia** initiated on 9 August 1987, when the Colombian **Navy** vessel *Caldas* entered Venezuelan territorial waters in the **Gulf of Venezuela** at a point where there was no accepted **boundary** limit for both countries. Venezuelan President **Jaime Lusinchi** ordered military measures, including sending Venezuelan Navy vessels and fighter aircraft to the area and mobilizing land troops to the border, along with closure of the land border due to Colombia's refusal to leave the area. After diplomatic efforts, the conflict ended on 17 August when Colombia ordered the withdrawal of the warship *Independiente*, which had relieved the *Caldas* in the conflict area. *See also* FOREIGN POLICY.

CRUZ DIEZ, CARLOS (Caracas, 1923–). Plastic artist. He is, along with **Jesus Soto**, one of the greatest representatives of kinetic art worldwide. His work is represented in the main museums of the world, such as the MoMA in New York and the Centre Georges Pompidou in Paris. After having studied at the **Fine Arts Academy in Caracas** and started work as a graphic designer, in 1960 he moved to Paris, where he has developed his most important work. The Museo de la Estampa y el Diseño Carlos Cruz Diez of Caracas honors his work.

CUBA, RELATIONS WITH. During the 20th century, bilateral relationships were marked by diplomatic tensions over the forms of government of both countries. From 1959, a democratic system was established in Venezuela, while in Cuba, as a product of the revolution, a dictatorship of Marxist inspiration was instituted. These two antagonistic models of government shaped the Latin American political system for the rest of the century. During the 1960s, Cuban intervention in the Venezuelan *lucha armada* led to the rupture of diplomatic relations in 1961. In 1962, the Venezuelan government was one of the major promoters of the expulsion of Cuba from the **Organization of American States**. All of this caused profound tensions that continued throughout the decade. Finally, in 1974, diplomatic relations were reestablished. From 1999, with the arrival of the **Bolivarian Revolution** led by **Hugo Chávez**, the relationship took a new direction. The ideological affinity between the regimes and the personal admiration professed by Chávez of Fidel Castro propitiated an approach that deepened as the Bolivarian regime took steps toward socialism. The Cuba–Venezuela Comprehensive Cooperation Agreement, signed in 2000, marked the beginning of a new stage of trade relations, in which Venezuela financed the battered Cuban **economy** by supplying 100,000 barrels of **oil** per day. In compensation, the Cuban government sent doctors to work in popular sectors that later supported the **Misiones**. This agreement soon included advice from Cuban personnel on strategic areas such as the military, citizen identification, registries and notaries, and national security, which generated deep fears and criticisms of interfering in Venezuelan sovereignty. This proximity progressively deteriorated Venezuela's relations with the **United States** and **Colombia**, traditional trade partners with opposing positions on the Cuban government. See also ALBA; BOLIVARIAN SOCIALISM.

CUBAGUA. Island located in the Caribbean Sea, part of **Nueva Esparta State**. Although it is practically unpopulated and without any source of water, it has great importance in Venezuelan history since the first Spanish settlements

were made there during the 15th century. Due to the great **pearl** richness of its coast, it became for two decades the most dynamic center of European activity in the Caribbean after Santo Domingo. The city of New Cádiz became so important that Emperor Charles V granted it city status in 1528. It was the center of intense pearl fishing activity and trade in **indigenous slaves**. However, during the 1530s, the pearl beds began to be exhausted and many locals left. In 1541, a tsunami destroyed the city, which marks the end of settlement on the island. At present, the ruins of New Cádiz are a cultural heritage of the nation. *See also* MARGARITA (ISLAND); MARGARITA (PROVINCE).

CUMANÁ (CITY). Capital of **Sucre State**, located in the northeast of the country, with a **population** of 374,706 (2011 census). In 1498, during **Christopher Columbus**'s third journey, the Spanish conquerors discovered this territory. The discovery of **pearls** in **Cubagua** made the island merchants explore **Tierra Firme** to enslave **aborigines** and look for sources of water. In order to stop the enslaving, **Bartolomé de Las Casas** pushed for the foundation of a **mission** in 1516, which was done by the Franciscans. Shortly after, Dominican missionaries arrived to the area and founded another mission, Santa Fe. Notwithstanding, as the incursions of **slave** traders continued, an aboriginal revolt ended both settlements in 1520. But these were the first Spanish settlements on the continent, so Cumaná is known as "La Primogénita" (The Firstborn). Before its definitive foundation in 1569 by Diego Fernández de Serpa, the city was built three times by the Spaniards, razed once by the aborigines and another time by an **earthquake**. In 1569, Cumaná became the capital of **Nueva Andalucía** Province. In 1777, it was incorporated into the **Venezuela General Captaincy**. In 1810, the city removed its Spanish authorities and created an autonomous junta. During the **War of Independence**, it was occupied alternatively by the royalist and the patriot forces. In 1813, **Santiago Mariño** occupied the city, which became the capital of **Oriente State**. A year later it was occupied by **José Tomás Boves**, who slaughtered the population. During **Gran Colombia**, Cumaná was the capital of the **Orinoco** Department, and once Venezuela separated from the union, it maintained the status of capital of the entities established in its region: the **province of Cumaná**, Nueva Andalucía State, Bermúdez State, and finally Sucre State. Nevertheless, during the 19th century, it was displaced by **Carupano** as the main economic center of the region. At the turn of the 20th century, it lost relevance as it was not an **oil**-producing area. With 374,706 inhabitants in 2011, it has many tourist sights, including Mochima National Park.

CUMANÁ (PROVINCE). Political-territorial unit existing between 1810 and 1864. It's the name assumed by the province of **Nueva Andalucía** when

in 1810 the city of **Cumaná** established an autonomous government, initiating the process of emancipation, and the city of **Barcelona** and its region split to form a new province (**province of Barcelona**). In 1821, it became part of the department of the **Orinoco** within **Gran Colombia**. Once Venezuela separated from the union, it regained its name until 1864, when the federal regime renamed it first **Cumaná State** and then Nueva Andalucía State. In 1881, it was integrated into the **Oriente State**, later called Bermúdez State, unified with the present states of **Sucre**, **Monagas**, and **Anzoátegui**. Having dissolved the Oriente State, Bermúdez State returned to the limits of the old province of Cumaná. In 1909, it was renamed with its present name of Sucre State.

D

DE LA PARRA, TERESA (Paris, France, 1889–Madrid, Spain, 1936).

Writer. Born Ana Teresa Parra Sanojo, she is considered one of the most prominent writers of Latin America. Although much of her life was spent abroad, she was able to express in her novels the intimate family atmosphere of the Venezuela of her time. In 1924, she published *Ifigenia*, which portrays a traditional, decadent, and prejudicial society fighting against modern life and new customs. Between 1928 and 1929, she gave a series of lectures in **Cuba** and **Colombia** regarding the importance of **women** during the colonial and independence periods. *Memorias de Mamá Blanca*, her second novel, was published in 1929.

DE LA PLAZA, SALVADOR (Caracas, 1896–Caracas, 1970).

Representative of Marxist ideology in Venezuela. He was a politician, trade union leader, and university professor. In 1914, as a student at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, he participated in protests against the government of **Juan Vicente Gómez** that forced him to live for two years in hiding. In 1917, he returned to the UCV and helped organize the student center. In 1919, he participated in the insurrection of Captain Luis Rafael Pimentel, being imprisoned at La Rotunda Prison. In 1921, he was sent into exile to France, where in 1924 he graduated as a lawyer from the University of Paris. In 1927, along with the brothers Eduardo and **Gustavo Machado**, he founded in Mexico the Partido Revolucionario Venezolano, a forerunner of the **Communist Party of Venezuela**. After the death of Gómez, he returned to Venezuela and participated in the organization of the **oil** strike of 1936, founded Partido Revolucionario Progresista, and helped in the creation of peasant leagues and the first unions of workers. He participated in the First Congress of Workers, where he defended fair demands. In 1937, he was expelled from the country along with other leftist leaders. He returned in 1943 and helped to draft the **Agrarian Reform** Law of 1945. He was imprisoned several times during the government of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, being expelled in 1954. He returned in 1958 and became a member of the Commission on Agrarian Reform. Thereafter, he taught in the faculty of **economics** and social **sciences**

and the School of History of the UCV. He was a contributor to various **news-papers** and magazines in the country until his death.

DE LA TORRE, MIGUEL (Bernaes, Spain, 1786–Madrid, Spain, 1843). Royalist army officer during the **War of Independence**, governor and commander-in-chief of Venezuela. In 1815, he arrived to Venezuela with the rank of colonel in the pacifying expedition of **Pablo Morillo**. In 1816, after the reconquering of New Granada, he was promoted to brigadier. In 1817, he tried to defend **Angostura** but was defeated by the forces of **Manuel Piar** in the Battle of **San Félix**. In 1820, he participated in the negotiations between **Simón Bolívar** and Morillo, which resulted in the **Trujillo Agreement**, the armistice that established a six-month truce and the regulation of war. Between 1820 and 1822, following the resignation of Morillo, he received the supreme command of the Spanish Army and served as governor and general captain of Venezuela. During this period, he married María de la Concepción de la Vega y Rodríguez del Toro, from an important Venezuelan family, cousin of **Francisco Rodríguez del Toro**, Fourth Marqués del Toro, and of **María Teresa Rodríguez del Toro**, the wife of Bolívar. On 24 June 1821, he was defeated at the **Carabobo Battle**, which would seal the independence of **Gran Colombia**. De la Torre managed to take refuge with the remnants of his army in Puerto Cabello. In 1822, he was replaced in his functions by **Francisco Tomás Morales**. Between 1823 and 1837, he held the position of general captain and governor of Puerto Rico. At the end of his mandate, he established his residence in Madrid. In 1836, the title of Count of Torrependo was conferred on him.

DELGADO CHALBAUD, CARLOS (Caracas, 1909–Caracas, 1950). Military officer, president of Venezuela between 1948 and 1950. Son of **Román Delgado Chalbaud**, a close associate of **Juan Vicente Gómez** and later fierce opponent, Delgado lived his childhood and early youth in exile. He took part in the failed **Falke Invasion**, in which his father, the leader of the insurrection, died. Graduating as an engineer, he returned to Venezuela after Gómez passed away and, after a brief stay, went back to France to complete military training. Back in Venezuela, he was assimilated into the Venezuelan Army. In 1945, he was a key player in the Unión Patriótica Militar, a military group that drove the overthrow of President **Isaías Medina Angarita** on **October 18**. Until 1948, he was part of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno**. That year, the newly elected President **Rómulo Gallegos** appointed him minister of defense. On 24 November 1948, Delgado Chalbaud led, jointly with **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** and **Luis Felipe Llovera Páez**, the coup d'état that overthrew Gallegos. He assumed the presidency as part of the

three-member military junta. Despite the banning of **Acción Democrática** and the exile of its main leaders, the government Delgado Chalbaud presided over behaved with relative respect for political rights and freedom of expression. On 13 November 1950, a few weeks after he proposed a political transition, Delgado Chalbaud was kidnapped by **Rafael Simón Urbina** and, after confusing crimes, assassinated. Although the perpetrators remained in the shadows, the main beneficiary of Delgado Chalbaud's death was Pérez Jiménez, who thereafter remained in power until **January 23, 1958**.

DELGADO CHALBAUD, ROMÁN (Mérida, 1882–Cumaná, 1929). Military officer, politician, and businessman. He was a close collaborator early in **Juan Vicente Gómez's** regime. In 1913, he was arrested on charges of plotting a coup d'état, being kept in prison until 1927, when he was released and sent into exile. Immediately, he organized the **Falke Invasion**, the aim of which was to overthrow Gómez. In August 1929, he died trying to seize **Cumaná** from government forces. His son **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**, who joined him in the invasion, later was involved in Venezuelan politics.

DELTA AMACURO (STATE). Located in the northeast of the country, its capital is Tucupita. The state has an area of 40,200 square kilometers (4.39 percent of Venezuelan territory) and a **population** of 165,525 (2011 census, 0.57 percent of the country). It includes four municipalities (Antonio Díaz, Casacoima, Perdenales, and Tucupita) and 21 parishes. The annual temperature is between 25 and 28 degrees Celsius. The major **aboriginal** tribe in the state is the **Warao**. Delta Amacuro was discovered in 1498 by **Christopher Columbus**, being the first place on the American mainland he disembarked. It was part of **Guayana Province** until 1764. By the **Orinoco River**, the territory is connected with the **Guayana Region** and elsewhere. Contact with other territories like **Trinidad** in the 19th century was important for the trade of **iron**, bauxite, aluminum, and steel. In 1992, the Congress of Venezuela made Delta Amacuro a state. The Orinoco River's delta is an important point of connection for commercial trade with other countries. The **economy** in Delta Amacuro is based in **agriculture**, fishing, and forestry activities, along with incipient **oil** extraction in the Cuenca Petrolífera Oriental de Venezuela. It also has mineral resources like **gold**, bauxite, quartz, and mercury.

DEPENDENCIAS FEDERALES. *See* ISLANDS.

DEPONS, FRANÇOIS (Soustons, France, 1751–Paris, France, 1812). Politician and lawyer. He served as a political agent in the French colony of Hispaniola, but in 1801, due to the uprising in Haiti led by Toussaint

Louverture, he was forced to flee to **Caracas**. Once established, he started to research the territory with the French authorities' approval. In 1806, in Paris, he published *Viaje a la parte oriental de Tierra Firme*, one of the best descriptions of Venezuelan society prior to independence. The work is a broad portrayal of the territory, resources, and **population**. The original French edition was promptly published in English in 1806, in German in 1807, and in Dutch during the same period. In Spanish, it was first published in 1930.

DEVONISH, ASNOLDO (Maracaibo, 1932–Caracas, 1997). Athlete. At the Helsinki Olympics Games in 1952, he won a bronze medal in the triple jump, with a distance of 15.52 meters. It was the first Olympic medal in Venezuelan sports history.

DÍAZ, SIMÓN (Barbacoas, 1928–Caracas, 2014). Singer and composer, also known as Tío Simón (Uncle Simon). Around the 1940s, he had a **radio** program called *El llanero*, which became very popular around the country. In the 1960s, he met **Hugo Blanco** and along with him began his music career. They made 16 records together until in 1977 Díaz went out on his own. In the 1980s, he started the popular **television** children's show *Contesta por Tío Simón*, which broadcast for 11 years. He is considered the most brilliant exponent of traditional Venezuelan music. His long list of compositions served to highlight and popularize *llanos* regional songs, like “Caballo Viejo,” one of the most popular in Venezuela, and “Tonada del Cabestrero,” a traditional milker tune. At the end of his life, his career was recognized with the Order of the Liberator, making him the first artist to obtain it. He also won a Latin Grammy Award in 2008 and four years later the National Prize for Culture.

DÍAZ ALFARO, SEBASTIÁN (Sanlúcar de Barrameda, Spain, c. 1533–Caracas, 1606). Conqueror. In 1567, he was part of the expedition of **Diego de Losada** that founded **Caracas**. He participated in continuous battles against the **aboriginal** tribes during the following two decades to stabilize the city. In 1585, he founded the city of San Sebastian de los Reyes (**Aragua State**). He spent the rest of his life as an important figure in Caracas society, becoming a major in the Santa Hermandad (Holy Brotherhood), the municipal police service. *See also* CARACAS INDIANS.

DÍAZ MORENO, ALONSO (Santa Olalla, Spain, c. 1520–Caracas, 1620). Conqueror. He is considered the founder of **Valencia**, between 1553 and 1555. Almost nothing is known about his life and the process of founding the city, which apparently was a spontaneous settling, until the mid-16th century, when it was systematized. He had an important role in the settlement as

the *regidor* (a sort of alderman of the council) of Borburata, which probably resulted in his being ascribed by collective memory as “founder” of the city.

DÍAZ RODRÍGUEZ, MANUEL (Caracas, 1871–New York, United States, 1927). Writer, politician, **journalist**, and doctor. Considered the best exponent of literary modernism in Venezuela, he published the story collection *Confidencias de psiquis* (1897) and the novels *Ídolos rotos* (1901) and *Peregrina o el pozo encantado* (1921), among others. In 1909, he was vice chancellor of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. He served during **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s administration in various positions, including minister of foreign affairs (1914) and ambassador to Italy (1919–1923). In 1926, he joined the **National Academy of History**.

DÍAZ SÁNCHEZ, RAMÓN (Puerto Cabello, 1903–Caracas, 1968). Writer, **journalist**, and historian. He was one of the renovators of Venezuelan **literature** at the beginning of the 20th century. Between 1920 and 1924, he began his artistic life. In 1925, he became a member of Seremos, an avant-garde literary group from **Maracaibo**. In the 1930s, he published *Mene* (1936), a novel that initiated the trend of the *novela del petróleo* in Venezuela. In 1941, he published his story collection *Caminos del amanecer*, which present aspects of the narrative innovation of its time. His novel *Cumboto*, published in 1950, won the **Arístides Rojas** Award. In 1950, he won the National Award for Journalism for his historical book *Guzmán, elipse de una ambición de poder* concerning **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán** and his son **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. His intellectual work made him a member of the **Venezuelan Academy of Language** (1952) and the **National Academy of History** (1958).

DICCIONARIO DE HISTORIA DE VENEZUELA. See HISTORICAL DICTIONARY OF VENEZUELA.

DIEZ MADROÑERO, DIEGO ANTONIO (Spain, c. 1715–Valencia, 1769). Twenty-third bishop of Venezuela, from 1756 until his death. His episcopal labor was very influential in both the spiritual order and civil government. He maintained a constant watch over the fulfillment of Christian values in daily life. In 1766, he proposed baptizing the streets of **Caracas** with the names of saints to entrust to them the protection of its homes, a tradition that continues today. See also CATHOLIC CHURCH.

DISTRITO CAPITAL. Located in the north of the country, its capital is **Caracas**. It has an area of 433 square kilometers (0.04 percent of the country),

with a **population** of 1,943,901 (2011 census, 6.71 percent of the country). It was created in 2000 to replace the **Distrito Federal**. The objective was to integrate all the municipalities of the metropolitan area of Caracas, which included several belonging to **Miranda State**, in a single coordinated entity, the Alcaldía Mayor. As well, the coastal part of the Distrito Federal was separated to create **Vargas State**. Geographically, it is placed in the Cordillera de la Costa, having a landscape with mountains, valleys, and hills modified by the urbanization process. The average temperature of the territory is 22 degrees Celsius, with a tropical climate. This capital district is the seat of the national government with all powers, including the Miraflores presidential palace, Assembly, Supreme Court, ministries, and most major financial institutions and **newspapers**.

DISTRITO FEDERAL. Political-territorial entity created in 1864 for the institution of the federal system, mainly to prevent the recently created Caracas State from acquiring predominance above the rest of the federation as it held the seat of all federal powers. In that way, the city of **Caracas**, neighboring areas, and its coast were detached to form the Distrito Federal, while the rest of the state was renamed Bolívar (not to be confused with the current **Bolívar State**). It had several modifications along the way, the most important being the segregation of the coast in 1998 to form **Vargas State**. Distrito Federal was headed by a governor, appointed by the president, being one of the key positions in the executive cabinet. In 2000, it was transformed into the **Distrito Capital**.

D'LEÓN, ÓSCAR (Caracas, 1943–). Popular musician. He is one of the most important salsa performers in the world. He began his career as a vocalist for the Dimensión Latina orchestra, with which he achieved great international success. In 1976, he began his successful solo career. *See also* ESCALONA, PHIDIAS DANILO.

DUDAMEL, GUSTAVO (Barquisimeto, 1981–). Orchestra conductor and director of the Los Angeles Symphony Orchestra and of the Gothenburg Symphony Orchestra. Having graduated from the **Sistema de Orquestas y Coros Juveniles e Infantiles de Venezuela** (Youth and Children's Orchestras and Choirs System of Venezuela), he quickly distinguished himself internationally as one of the most talented young directors in the world. After he won the Gustav Mahler Direction Award in 2004, Dudamel began to be requested by the main orchestras of the world. In 2012, he won a Grammy. *See also* ABREU, JOSÉ ANTONIO.

DUIJM, SUSANA (Aragua de Barcelona, 1936–Porlamar, 2016). Miss World 1955, actress, and model. Her triumph was a major boost for the **Miss Venezuela** contest, which eventually became a national symbol. She acted in several films and **telenovelas**.

E

EARTHQUAKE OF 1812. Earthquakes on 26 March 1812, that caused the destruction of **Caracas**, San Felipe (**Yaracuy State**), **Barquisimeto** (**Lara State**), and **Mérida** (**Mérida State**). Conventionally, it was thought to be only one great earthquake, but current research has concluded that there were at least two major earthquakes, with numerous aftershocks. It is the most famous earthquake in Venezuelan history because it occurred during the **War of Independence**, being a key factor in the fall of the **First Republic**. As that day was Maundy Thursday, as had also been **April 19, 1810**, the population concluded that it was God's punishment for rebelling against the king, an idea spread by royalist clergy. It is said that in response to this **Simón Bolívar**, in the ruins of the church of San Jacinto in Caracas, said the famous phrase, "If nature opposes our designs, we will fight against it and make it obey us." The destruction left by the earthquake and the conviction of God's punishment deepened opposition to the republic and endorsed its fall in the next three months. *See also* NATURAL DISASTERS.

EARTHQUAKES. *See* NATURAL DISASTERS.

ECONOMY. The Venezuelan economy can be divided into three historical periods based on the predominant source of export revenues: **cocoa**, **coffee**, and **oil**. The age of cocoa occurred from the 17th century until the end of the **War of Independence** in 1820s. The age of coffee ran from the 1830s to the 1910s. The age of oil started in the 1920s and continues today. Prior to these periods, **aboriginal** tribes before the European conquest based their economy on hunting, gathering, fishing, and enslaving other tribes, while more developed tribes cultivated some crops and entered into bartering with other groups. When the European conquest started in the 1500s, the economy was mostly based on enslaving indigenous people, fishing for **pearls**, **mining** for a modest amount of **gold**, and cultivating crops that continued to be important throughout the 16th century.

Period of Cocoa. Around the 1630s, after a centurylong process of exploration and foundation of major cities across the coast and the mountain ranges into the **Andean Region**, the current territory of Venezuela started to gain

relevance as a producer of cocoa. The quality of the product made it highly valued in Spanish metropolises, the Viceroyalty of New Spain (now Mexico), and major European markets, in which it was traded also by Dutch, French, and British smugglers from the nearby islands. The cocoa exports from 1621 to 1700 amounted to 435 thousand *fanegas* (bags). In order to monopolize this product and battle smugglers, the Spanish Crown set up between the 1720s and 1780s the chartered **Compañía Guipuzcoana**. During the period, cocoa exports increased substantially to 2.9 million bags, an almost sevenfold rise. While cocoa was a predominant product along the coast, other products started gaining relevance in the 18th century: prime-quality **tobacco** harvested at **Barinas** in the western *llanos*, cattle rising in the western and eastern plains and in the Caroní River area in **Guayana**, sugarcane and indigo production in the valleys of the center of the country. Some modest copper, **iron**, and gold mining took place as well. In fact, by the 1790s, the current territory of Venezuela was quite prosperous, and the *mantuanos*, a powerful creole aristocracy, had developed, with a workforce mostly made up of **slaves**. In the 1780s, trade with New Spain lost relevance in terms of profits, and in the 1790s a new crop, coffee, started its ascent and by 1810 had matched cocoa exports.

Period of Coffee. The **War of Independence** caused massive damage to cultivation and facilities in the *llanos* and the central valleys, along with a substantial loss of workforce, as the country lost more than a fifth of its population in the conflict. Once the war ended and Venezuela became an independent republic in 1830, coffee became the major export crop. The government obtained most of its revenue from customs tariffs and taxes for export and import of products in the major ports, monopolized by **commercial houses**. Economist Asdrubal Baptista developed estimations on the economic performance of the country until the 1950s, when Venezuela established a system of national accounts. These provide a perspective on how the economy fared during this period. During the 1830s, under the leadership of **José Antonio Páez**, the economy grew 98 percent as it recovered from the war and was able to double its **agricultural** exports, which by 1840 were led by coffee at 38 percent of total exports, while cocoa came in second with 21 percent. Imports by 1840 came mostly from Great Britain (44 percent), followed by the **United States** (22 percent) and Germany (20 percent). In the 1840s, the economy grew 50 percent, explained by an increase in agricultural activity of 46 percent and government activity, which increased 65 percent. Agricultural exports grew as well by 50 percent, led by coffee (41 percent of total exports), cocoa (20 percent), and leather (17 percent). The 1830s and 1840s saw the enactment of liberal reforms that helped agriculture develop and increased badly needed investment as Venezuela failed to enter into the First Industrial Revolution.

In the 1850s, with the ascent to power of **José Tadeo Monagas** and his brother, these liberal reforms did not continue, but the gradual process of freeing slaves was finished in 1854. The economy stagnated, contracting in the 1850s by 2 percent due to agricultural activity declining by 32 percent, which was partially offset by a substantial increase in government activity (growing 65 percent). Agricultural exports decreased by 25 percent, with coffee representing 44 percent of total exports. This decade ended with the start of the **Federal War** (1859–1863), which caused substantial damage to areas and facilities across the *llanos*, including tobacco plantations in Barinas, where a highly valued variety was lost forever. Coffee- and cocoa-growing lands did not suffer, as they were located in areas not impacted by the war, such as the Andes and the **Caracas** Valley (coffee) and coastal areas (cocoa), particularly the central and eastern littoral. This allowed the economy during the first half of the 1860s to grow by 22 percent as agricultural exports increased 53 percent. Coffee continued its primacy with 63 percent of total exports. In the second half of the 1860s, exports roughly increased by 9 percent, but the economy contracted by 18 percent as government activity struggled, falling by 63 percent. This economic crisis, along with anarchy across the country generated by local **caudillos**, led to the **Revolución Azul** (1868) and **Revolución de Abril** (1870), which enabled the ascent of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** to power. Guzmán brought a program of liberal reforms and took efforts to increase foreign investment while holding local warlords under control. The *guzmancismo* (between the 1870s and the 1880s) saw the arrival of **railroads**, the mining of gold and asphalt, the foundation of **banking** institutions, and the issuance of the **bolívar** currency. The economy grew during the 1870s by 49 percent as agricultural exports increased by 48 percent, led in 1880 by coffee at 43 percent of total exports, gold 16 percent, and cocoa 7 percent. During the 1880s, the economy continued growing by 50 percent; government activity almost doubled, increased by 95 percent; and agricultural exports grew by only 8 percent. Exports continued to be led by coffee, which by 1890 accounted for 73 percent of the total, gold 7 percent, and cocoa 9 percent. As Guzmán Blanco's influence ceased, **Joaquín Crespo** took power in the 1890s. During this decade, the economy stagnated, contracting by 2 percent as government activity was reduced by 21 percent. The country had to struggle with high **external debt**, which had accumulated during the whole 19th century, further complicated by railroad investments not proving profitable enough to repay the debt created to finance them. Also, customs tax revenues stagnated as agricultural exports only grew by 15 percent, with coffee representing 38 percent of total exports and cocoa 16 percent, while gold lost relevance to only 2 percent. The source of imports had changed substantially as now the United States provided 42 percent of imports, while

Great Britain, which in 1840 was the main source, provided 32 percent and Germany 14 percent.

As the 19th century closed, figures assembled by Angus Maddison allow a perspective on how Venezuela compared to the developed world and other Latin American countries. In 1990 constant international dollars, Venezuela's GDP per capita was US\$821, while Great Britain's was US\$4,492, the United States US\$4,091, and Argentina US\$2,875. Venezuela's GDP amounts to less than 20 percent of the first and the second and less than 30 percent of the latter, placing it among the least developed countries in Latin America and the world. In the 1900s, **Cipriano Castro** rose to power, and as Venezuela continued struggling to pay for its external debt, he faced a blockade of the coast in the **Venezuelan Crisis of 1902**. As well, local interests in banking and foreign interests in asphalt spurred the **Revolución Libertadora**, which was defeated and closed the chapter of civil wars in Venezuela. Nevertheless, during this decade, the economy managed to grow by 19 percent. This was enabled by government activity, which was increased by 46 percent, while agricultural exports stagnated, growing only 4 percent. Coffee represented 46 percent of total exports, while cocoa continued regaining ground with 20 percent, and leathers represented 5 percent. During Castro's regime, **oil concessions** were given to private investors close to his entourage. In 1908, Castro was ousted by his vice president, General **Juan Vicente Gómez**. In the 1910s, the economy was impacted positively by the First World War, growing 41 percent. Government activity expanded, and agricultural exports grew by 65 percent. Exports were led by coffee (38 percent) and cocoa (20 percent). In this decade, Gómez finished the consolidation of the state, a process initiated by Guzmán Blanco in the 1870s, leveraging the integration of the country through **roads**, the modernization of the **army**, and the ordering of public finances, the latter led by **Román Cárdenas**.

During this decade, foreign geologists made explorations across the country, in particular American Ralph Arnold, which showed the high potential of oil deposits in Venezuela, while oil concessions continued to be transferred to foreign companies. In 1912, Royal Dutch **Shell** arrived in Venezuela, acquired one of these concessions, and started exploration efforts, which led to the discovery of the first commercial oil well in 1914, **Zumaque I**, and the first recorded oil exports in 1917. That was the dawn of the oil era, which encompasses the rest of Venezuelan economic history.

Period of Oil. In 1922, at a Shell oil well, the **Reventón del Barrocos 2** took place, and oil production in Venezuela started to increase rapidly. American oil companies like Standard Oil of New Jersey (later **Creole Petroleum Corporation**), Standard Oil of Indiana, and **Mene Grande Oil Company** arrived during the 1920s and started to make discoveries and invest in

production facilities. Oil production rose from half a million barrels in 1920 to 135 million barrels in 1930. The economy benefited from this surplus of resources and grew drastically by 329 percent in the decade, which in turn allowed the end by 1930 of a process started under the Castro regime: the full payment of external debt. Oil only represented 13 percent of total exports in 1920, while in 1930 it represented 82 percent. Traditional exports such as coffee and cocoa amounted to just 8 percent and 2 percent, respectively, by 1930 and did not recover afterward, as producers and traders focused on real estate, banking, and other commercial activities instead.

In the aftermath of the 1929 crash and the depression that impacted the United States and Europe, Venezuela decided in 1934 to revalue its currency against the U.S. dollar. The **Tinoco Agreement** signed with multinational oil companies, which was a coup de grâce for agriculture, increased Venezuelans' purchasing power to buy imported goods. President **Eleazar López Contreras** (1935–1941) had to bear the costs and benefits of this measure. The 1930s were a decade marked in the beginning by turmoil in oil markets worldwide due to oversupply. Venezuelan oil production declined by 12 percent from 134 to 118 million barrels, yet afterward recovered to end the decade at 184 million barrels in 1940, with new discoveries in the east of the country by Mene Grande and Standard Oil of New Jersey. The economy suffered heavily in 1930–1933, contracting by 11 percent, but the recovery in oil production enabled it to grow in the 1930s by 49 percent overall. An important economic event was the creation of the Central Bank of Venezuela (1939).

The Second World War affected Venezuela, as from 1941 the submarine war of the Axis powers reached the country's coasts and blockaded crude oil exports. From 1941 to 1943, the economy shrank by 19 percent as oil production declined in 1942 by 35 percent, yet it was able to recover in 1943 by 20 percent as the submarines were defeated. Imports were impacted as well since resources were directed toward the war effort, diminishing in 1940–1943 by 45 percent. The flipside of this shortage in imported products was seen in the increase of manufacturing, almost nonexistent before 1936, which grew during the Second World War period (1939–1945) by 30 percent. The end of the war coupled with the Oil Law Reform of 1943 under **Isaías Medina Angarita**, which confirmed oil concession given to oil companies at the cost of higher profit sharing with the state (paving the way to 50–50 sharing), resulted in the building of large refining facilities in Venezuela. This spurred a massive amount of investment in the oil industry, which spilled over into other sectors such as construction and manufacturing. This enabled the economy during the whole 1940s to grow by 156 percent. Oil production rose from 184 million barrels in 1940 to 546 million barrels in 1950, an increase of almost 200 percent. It was joined by an increase in oil prices, which had been

stable from 1930 to 1945 around US\$1 per barrel, to US\$2.12 per barrel in 1950 (a 112 percent increase). This decade marked the end of the primacy of the private sector as the growth engine in the economy, as the state acquired massive power to lead the economy through the redistribution of oil rents, marking the beginning of **rentier capitalism**, the dominant economic model of Venezuela since then. Another important economic event was the creation of the income revenue tax (1941). Medina was overthrown in 1945, and after the short **Trienio Adeco** and the presidency of **Rómulo Gallegos**, the period known as the **military dictatorship** (1948–1958) started.

The period 1950–1958 was probably the most prosperous Venezuela has seen in economic terms. Oil production rose to 1,041 million barrels in 1960 (50 percent increase), coupled with an increase in oil prices from US\$2.12 per barrel in 1950 to US\$2.5 in 1958 (18 percent increase). Iron production in the **Guayana Region** rose also, representing 7 percent of total exports by 1960. As well, manufacturing grew by 220 percent, imports rose by 75 percent, a massive process of urbanization and construction took place, and even agriculture increased by 95 percent. The whole economy grew during the 1950s by 63 percent. Venezuela was by then at the head of the Latin American economies, and briefly was only behind the United States and Switzerland in 1957 in GDP per capita, based on Angus Maddison's estimations in international dollars of 1990: Venezuela, US\$10,058; the United States, US\$10,920; and Switzerland, US\$11,705. The closest Latin American country to Venezuela was Argentina at US\$5,461 (roughly half of Venezuela), and the Latin American average stood at US\$2,975 (roughly a third). It is no surprise that from the end of the Second World War and throughout the 1950s, a massive influx of migrants, mostly skilled, arrived in the country from all over Europe, but in particular from Spain, Portugal, and Italy. This further helped the demographic explosion in the decade as the **population** grew by 49 percent, a process that had started in the 1940s, when it grew by 33 percent, as **epidemics** were contained.

The restoration of democracy in 1958 and the start of the 1960s came with a reduction of investment by multinational oil companies as **Juan Pablo Pérez Alfonzo**, minister during the **Rómulo Betancourt** period, started to pave the way to nationalizing the oil industry. The government did not offer more concessions to companies, a process continued by his successors **Raúl Leoni** and **Rafael Caldera**. This came with a decline of 26 percent in oil prices, from US\$2.5 per barrel in 1958 to US\$1.84 in 1970. Nevertheless, as multinational oil companies focused on their most productive fields, production reached 1,353 million barrels in 1970, a 30 percent increase, allowing the Venezuelan economy to grow by 64 percent. As Venezuela embraced state-led industrialization, which had been taking place since the mid-1940s,

manufacturing grew as well by 116 percent, while construction continued its growth at 64 percent. The sustained growth of these three decades allowed for the creation of a middle class with high purchasing power, something uncommon in Latin America, which had experienced currency crises and inflationary events. The Venezuelan state during the period, through **Corporación Venezolana de Guayana (CVG)**, developed the hydroelectric power of rivers in that region and started to develop steel production, aluminum smelting, and gold and bauxite mining. By then the country had the first integrated electricity grid in Latin America. During the decade, the population grew by 43 percent.

The 1970s, under the government of **Carlos Andrés Pérez**, saw the nationalization of strategic industries in the middle of the decade and, in particular, iron and **oil**, now managed by CVG and **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. (PDVSA)**, respectively. However, oil production declined substantially by 41 percent to 793 million barrels in 1980 as 15 years of low investment by multinational oil companies had its cost, and PDVSA had to start investing again. Nevertheless, the oil shocks generated by the Middle East crisis led oil prices to rise 1,336 percent to US\$26,79 per barrel, which generated a massive amount of oil rents. This, coupled with a rapid and undisciplined process of indebtedness, led the government to finance major projects in strategic industries. The economy grew in the 1970s by 23 percent, a slower pace than preceding decades, while manufacturing grew by 94 percent, mostly helped by state credits. Inflation, which had not been an issue in the 20th century, started increasing from 4 percent in 1970 to 20 percent in 1980 as the distortions generated by the economy had their effects. As other Latin American countries were facing economic downturns or political distresses, during this decade and well into the 1980s, Venezuela received again a massive influx of migrants, this time from **Colombia**, Ecuador, Peru, Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay. This had its impact, as according to some specialists, most of them were unskilled and demanded public services that the country was not prepared to provide and did not engage in wealth-generation activities, becoming a burden to the state. This helped sustain demographic growth, which stood at 37 percent in the 1970s.

The 1980s brought a sharp decline in oil prices, falling to US\$12.82 per barrel in 1986, but recovering in 1990 to US\$20.33. A massive process of capital flight took place as confidence in the economy eroded and the strategic projects into which debt was poured were not generating profits. This brought as a consequence in 1983, under the government of **Luis Herrera Campins**, the event known as **Viernes Negro** (Black Friday), when the bolívar was devalued. The bolívar, historically a stable currency for many decades at 4.30 Bs./USD, was devalued to 7.5 Bs./USD, and an exchange control mechanism, known as RECADI, was implemented until 1989. Venezuela

had to refinance its external debt in 1986 under the government of **Jaime Lusinchi**. Oil production during the 1980s continued declining due to the pressures in OPEC to maintain low production levels, reaching 613 million barrels in 1985, a level not seen since the early 1950s. Afterward, production started recovering, reaching 780 million barrels at the end of the decade. The exchange rate was devalued by 830 percent to 40 Bs./USD, while inflation continued growing to 40 percent in the mid-1980s, due to price controls in place. The economy in the 1980s stagnated, growing only 2 percent, while population continued its growth by 33 percent. It is no surprise that in the 1980s, Venezuela, despite still leading the South American economies in GDP per capita, suffered a sharp decline in this figure. In 1990 international dollars, GDP per capita fell from roughly US\$10,000 in 1980 to US\$8,000 in 1990, a 20 percent decline in real terms. This meant that the middle class, one of the major results of the flourishing economy of the past decades, suffered a substantial reduction, while the state failed to meet the needs of impoverished people.

The 1980s ended with the arrival to power for a second time of Carlos Andrés Pérez, who brought a set of market-friendly economic policies, according with the suggestions of International Monetary Fund and Washington Consensus, as the country was on the brink of financial collapse. These included free floating the currency, reducing customs taxes, ending price controls, and increasing fuel prices. In 1989, the economy fell by 9 percent and inflation reached a record 81 percent. These economic reforms met with rejection from the population, which protested them in the *Caracazo*, in traditional parties like **Acción Democrática** and **COPEI**, among business leaders, and in other important sectors. Nevertheless, the partial application of these policies, further helped by a short-lived increase in oil prices of 25 percent in 1990 and the privatization of state-owned companies, enabled Venezuela to grow from 1989 to 1993 by 24 percent, figures not seen since the 1970s. Oil production during the period rose to 903 million barrels in 1993, an increase from 1990 of 15 percent. Despite these economic advances, a generalized loss of confidence in the economy took place after the coup attempts on **February 4** and **November 27, 1992**, and Pérez was taken out of power in 1993. The exchange rate rose to 100 Bs./USD while inflation reached 46 percent in 1993. **Ramón J. Velázquez** briefly replaced Pérez, implementing a value-added tax, which had not been applied during the decade despite being part of Pérez's policy package. Rafael Caldera's second term looked to bring the decade to a close. Under his government, a huge financial crisis shook the banking sector, eroding a substantial part of it and leading to a currency exchange control operated by the OTAC. In 1996, Caldera had to put in place an agenda with the International Monetary Fund to revamp the economy, which again was collapsing, including almost the same measures of Pérez's second term, including the dismantling of the currency exchange control. The

Apertura Petrolera process, which allowed foreign oil companies to operate in Venezuela, enabled oil production to continue growing from 1993 to 1998 by 34 percent to 1,215 million barrels, while prices saw sharp swings, reaching US\$10.57 per barrel in 1998, including the start of oil extraction in the Orinoco Oil Belt, the largest oil reservoir in the world. The exchange rate reached 500 Bs./USD by 1998, and inflation, after a high of 103 percent in 1996, fell to 30 percent in 1998. The economy as a whole during this decade grew by 26 percent, yet population continued its pace at 23 percent. Venezuela opened the 21st century no longer leading South American countries in terms of income, yet with deep transformations brought by the oil industry. In 1990 international dollars, Venezuela had in 2000 a GDP per capita of US\$8,409, roughly the same as Argentina and Uruguay, while Chile's was US\$10,199, leading the region.

In 1998, **Hugo Chávez Frías** ascended to power. From 1998 to 2002, the economy declined by 8 percent in an environment of stable oil prices and production of around US\$20 per barrel and 1,105 million barrels, while the exchange rate surged to 1,000 Bs./USD and inflation reached 31 percent. In 2002, after the events of **April 11** and the **Paro Petrolero** (Oil Strike), the economy suffered severely, and in 2003 it fell by 8 percent. A new exchange control was established, known as CADIVI, which continues to operate today. However, Chávez acquired full discretionary control over oil rents when he gained absolute domination over PDVSA. The year 2004 brought an increase in oil rents as oil prices continued a sharp increase until 2008, reaching US\$150 per barrel. The economy grew substantially by 40 percent, experiencing an increase in imports not seen since the 1950s and 1970s. However, inflation continued to be high, hovering around 20 percent. The exchange rate, despite control, continued to devalue to 2,150 Bs./USD in 2008 at official rates, and 5,000 Bs./USD at the unofficial rate, a devaluation of 330 percent or 900 percent versus 1998, respectively.

From 2008 to 2010, oil prices declined, but recovered and stabilized around US\$100 per barrel, while oil production stagnated, as statization of oil ventures set up in the Apertura Petrolera took place. The economy during these years was further impacted by the nationalization of companies in sectors like steel, telecom, and electricity, and a growing hostility toward private-sector industries, particularly in manufacturing and agriculture. In 2009 and 2010, the economy fell by 3 percent and 1.5 percent, respectively, while inflation continued around 30 percent, and the official exchange rate stood at 4.3 Bs./USD (the currency was changed to the bolívar fuerte, removing three zeros). The unofficial exchange rate was around 6 to 8 Bs./USD. Despite the massive influx of oil rents experienced during the period 2004 to 2010, oil production declined 30 percent from 1998 to 1,051 million barrels. The period from 2011 to 2012 was marked by a sharp increase in monetary

liquidity to maintain a high pace of expenditures in the economy, which grew around 5 percent each year as oil prices recovered. Inflation continued around 13 percent, and the exchange rate increased in official terms to 6.3 Bs./USD and in unofficial terms to 8.5 to 11 Bs./USD. The monetary liquidity was critical to ensuring Chávez won the presidential elections of 2012. During these years, price controls were enforced in order to curb inflation, at the cost of increasing scarcity of basic products.

In 2013, Chávez passed away and was replaced by **Nicolás Maduro**, appointed as his successor. As oil prices remained above US\$100 per barrel and production was stable, the government still had resources to import products. Yet scarcity continued increasing due to price controls and hostility to the private sector, further increased by monetary liquidity expansion. This led to a rise in unofficial exchange rates throughout the year from 18 Bs./USD to 70 Bs./USD, an increase of 500 percent versus the rate of 2012. Inflation according to the Central Bank rose to 52 percent, and the economy only grew 1.3 percent. In 2014, the positive trend of oil prices ended and fell to US\$86 per barrel, and oil production was stagnant. This led to a decline of 4 percent in the economy, as neither the private sector, under siege by the government and deprived of foreign currency, nor the state-owned companies, mostly unprofitable, were able to compensate for the fall in oil prices. Scarcity continued mounting as the government was unable to maintain the previous levels in imports and enforced more severe price controls and labor laws. Monetary liquidity continued increasing, while the exchange rate reached 200 Bs./USD, an increase of 185 percent versus 2013. Official inflation was reported at 69 percent. As oil prices continued declining in 2015 to US\$40 per barrel, the economy contracted a further 6 percent, with the unofficial exchange rate reaching 800 Bs./USD, an increase of 300 percent, and inflation estimated at 181 percent. External debt rose to historic levels as the combined debt of PDVSA and sovereign debt, along with other compromises, went above 100 billion USD. Imports were further reduced as the government privileged bondholder interests above badly needed imports, so scarcity was widespread across all sectors. This situation continued into 2016, as oil prices remained around US\$50 per barrel and oil production continued to be low. The economy was estimated to fall around 10 percent, while inflation stood at 720 percent, also a historic level. The official exchange rate stood at 643 Bs./USD, but foreign currency available at this rate was nonexistent. The unofficial exchange rate was 2,500 Bs./USD, a 212 percent increase.

As during the 20th century, today Venezuela's economy continues to be oil based. Actual production is around 954 million barrels, below the levels of 1998, while the country possesses the largest proven oil reserves in the world. Economic development is feeble at present, despite the possibility of diversifying, with vast amounts of other resources such as gold, iron, bauxite,

and aluminum and potential in tourism. Likewise, the agricultural sector, the base of the economy in the 18th and 19th centuries, is neglected. The population grew from 2000 to 2016 by 29 percent, but the middle class is no longer a relevant sector in the economy, its purchasing power eroded by the massive devaluations of recent years. *See also* ADRIANI, ALBERTO.

EDUCATION. A schematization of the Venezuelan educational system can be made based on the periods of legal and political organization in Venezuela, as its organization, philosophy, and ways of operating have answered to these periods. In this sense, the history of education can be divided into the colonial period (1498–1810), republican-liberal period (1810–1936), democratic period (1936–1999), and recent history (from 1999).

Colonial Period (1498–1810). Formal education was mainly developed by two institutions, the municipal schools administered by the *cabildos* and the **Catholic Church**, which provided primary, intermediate, and superior studies in the convents. In these convents, a school of thought was even developed, the *escotista* (see **Scotist School of Caracas**), in which manuals devoted to education were written. Education was reserved to the white population, but in the **missions** some education was offered to **original** people, even though they almost never were taught to read. As well, there was a wide parallel, nonformal network of education institutions, ranging from tutors to elite children to workshops in which apprentices, in addition to a skill, learned to read and write. In none of these cases was education free, and only a small segment of the population was able to read and write. By the end of the 18th century, the *tertulias* (Enlightenment salons) became popular, in which some sectors of the elite read and discussed philosophical and scientific topics of modernity. In 1673, the bishopric decreed the foundation of a seminary to prepare clerics, which started to operate in 1696 under the name of the Seminary of Santa Rosa de Lima (today the Universidad Católica Santa Rosa). With this institution, superior studies started in Venezuela. In 1721, this seminary was elevated to Real y Pontificia Universidad de Caracas (the current **Universidad Central de Venezuela** [UCV]). In 1785, the Seminary of San Buenaventura was founded in **Mérida**.

Republican-Liberal Period (1810–1936). The University of Mérida, established in 1810 by the junta of that city, marked the beginning of the independent period in the history of Venezuelan education. Due to the **War of Independence**, this university did not start to operate until 1832. The republic proposed to create a secularized education led by the guidelines of modern thought, especially the ideas of the Enlightenment and the values of liberalism. This implied moving from theology and scholasticism toward an education centered on scientific formation. The reform of the University of Caracas in 1827, under the leadership of **José María Vargas** and guided by

the **Gran Colombia** Law of Public Instruction of 1826, is the best example of this effort. In 1829, the **Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País** was formed, which among its objectives had the development of education in arts and skills, for which in 1834 a school of **music**, one of shorthand, and an English course were created. All these schools, however, had a complicated life. In 1831, the **Mathematics Academy of Caracas** was created to prepare engineers. In 1832, the Colegios Nacionales were created in the capital cities of each province, offering in most cases secondary studies. When they were considered colleges of first category, they offered a sort of intermediate study, which allowed some education in law, medicine, and technical preparation in certain areas (for example, navigation in **Maracaibo**). In 1863, with the triumph of the federation in the **Federal War**, they changed their name to Colegios Federales. During these years, private institutions also functioned, acquiring great importance, such as the colleges Independencia (1830) and Santa María (1853), both located in Caracas. All this represented an important step in the objective of forming an enlightened elite to guide the country. On the other hand, most of the population was illiterate, and with the closure of convents education was restricted. The Decree of Public Instruction, enacted in 1870 by **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, tried to bring education to the largest number of citizens possible, establishing the principle of popular instruction. Since then, primary instruction has been compulsory and free of charge in state institutions. In 1876, in order to prepare teachers, the creation of normal schools was decreed. During the Guzmán regime, more than 1,700 schools were created, which was a substantial growth in these times. In addition, the UCV was reformed according to the Napoleonic model, stewarding the study of natural sciences and positivist philosophy, and a new facility was inaugurated. At the same time, education in **arts (Fine Arts Academy, 1870)** and in technical fields (*Escuelas de Artes y Oficios*, 1884) was developed. In 1881, the Ministry of Public Instruction was created. Within this impulse, in 1891 the University of **Maracaibo** and in 1892 the University of **Valencia** were opened. Nevertheless, the Guzmán regime deprived the UCV of financial autonomy, the University of Mérida was closed for some time, and for political reasons the Mathematics Academy was closed (yet it was promptly substituted by the Faculty of Engineering of the UCV). Despite the efforts for popular instruction, most people remained outside of the educational system. The large economic and political crises of the 1890s and 1900s not only stagnated this process but also, in many cases, took it backward. Many primary and normal schools closed during the period. In 1904, the Universities of Maracaibo and Valencia were closed. Probably there were only two relevant changes in the beginnings of the 20th century. On one hand, there is the creation of the Military Academy in 1910, which marked the beginning of the professionalization of the **army**. On the other was the development

of an important network of private education with the return of religious congregations, many of them expelled during the War of Independence. The arrival of La Salle brothers (1913) and Jesuits (1916) caused the founding of many important Catholic colleges, in which an important sector of elites has been formed since. The La Salle College of **Barquisimeto** (1913) and the San Ignacio College of Caracas (1923) are two emblematic institutions in this respect. On the other hand, in 1912 the Venezuelan state founded the Naval School and the School of Commerce of Caracas in order to prepare accountants and administrators. Nevertheless, the UCV was closed that year, in part to exert political control over it but also to move toward a British university model. It was reopened in 1925.

Democratic Period (1936–1999). From 1936, and for several decades after, a fight for political and social democracy characterized Venezuelan society. Inside this idea of democracy, education was given a critical role as a tool to prepare citizens, a method of social ascent and of the formation of human capital for development. Almost all the political programs of the time coincided in seeing literacy and technical education as two fundamental areas for the development of Venezuela. Organized in 1932 in the Sociedad Venezolana de Maestros de Instrucción Primaria (since 1936, Federación Venezolana de Maestros), teachers played an important role in the formation of new political parties, in particular their main leader, **Luis Beltrán Prieto Figueroa**. His thoughts include the thesis of an “education for the masses” instead of “education for the castes,” and the *estado docente*, the supreme control of the state over the system. The creation of the Instituto Pedagógico Nacional (today, **Instituto Pedagógico de Caracas**) in 1936, focused on preparing secondary school teachers, was the base of the pedagogical revolution, which marked the beginning of what is known as the golden age of Venezuelan education. Between 1936 and 1980, Venezuela experienced a reduction of illiteracy to less than 10 percent of the population. In addition, it passed from two to more than 100 universities, preparing a technical elite capable of taking the development of the country forward. Also, modern pedagogy was imposed on schools. Education became one of the most important levers of social ascent, leading to the creation of a new middle class. In 1959, also an idea of Prieto Figueroa, the Instituto de Cooperación Educativa (INCE) was created for the technical preparation of youth who did not have the opportunity to go to school. In 1979, the Sistema Intercultural Bilingüe was created for the education of aboriginal people. In 1983, the normal schools were eliminated, transferring teacher education to the universities. In the same way, the private sector generated institutions of great prestige, both for elites and popular classes. For example, in 1953 **Fe y Alegría** was created by the initiative of Father **José María Vélaz**, a movement of popular education

that has extended to 20 countries. This educational development, of which Venezuela is quite proud, was largely funded by **oil** rents. The crisis of the economic model since the 1980s quickly put in evidence the reality of the quality of the system.

Recent History (1999–2016). Since the 1990s, there is consensus that the educational system is far from achieving the objectives of citizen and professional education. This has generated a variety of reform proposals, in particular after the arrival to power of **Hugo Chávez**. Departing from the premise of *estado docente*, it was decided to reignite the provision of education to the masses with strong state control. This has been taken forward by the so-called Sistema Educativo Bolivariano, a parallel system to the one already existing, which through the so-called Bolivarian schools and universities, in which the students receive support like scholarships and food, was able to increase school enrollment to 30 percent (doubled in the case of universities). Other lines of action have been the **Misiones**, some of which are devoted to literacy and serve populations without access to schools. Many discussions have been had about the quality of education provided in these programs and its ideological bias. In any case, the crisis triggered by the failure of **Bolivarian Socialism** seems to be offsetting these policies. In 2005, for example, the **United Nations** declared Venezuela free of illiteracy; nevertheless, the state recognized in 2013 the existence of more than one million people who can't read. Enrollment in schools is starting to decrease in the public sector, while it is increasing in the private. The problems of public education seem to be the main cause of this migration. Another source of concern is the rapid deterioration of universities, which have enormous budget problems to contend with. In a context in which many professionals are leaving the country, professors are not immune, leading to a great loss of human talent.

EGAÑA, MANUEL (Zaraza, 1900–Caracas, 1985). Lawyer, **economist**, and politician. In 1929, he served at the Venezuelan embassy in Washington. In 1938, President **Eleazar López Contreras** appointed him minister of finance and development, with the assignment of presenting a project for the creation of the Central Bank of Venezuela (1941). During **Isaías Medina Angarita's** administration, he was a member of the commission that reviewed the Hydrocarbons Law reform of 1943. As a senator (1941) and president of the National Congress (1944), he made the first mission of Venezuelan government officers to meet with **oil**-producing Middle East nations (1949). He was appointed again as minister of development under the military junta (1948) and later under the democratic administration of **Raul Leoni** (1964).

EL COJO ILUSTRADO. Magazine, essentially cultural, which pioneered photojournalism in Venezuela. Founded by Jesús María Herrera Irigoyen

(1877–1929) as editor, it circulated every two months between 1892 and 1915. This publication had an enormous influence on Venezuelan culture. The generation of local modernist writers published some of their most important works in its pages. The photoengravings featured in its pages are an important historical testimony, as are the musical scores that appeared in each number. Besides, *El Cojo Ilustrado* was a landmark in the history of graphic design in Venezuela since it was an example of Art Nouveau style. *See also* JOURNALISM.

EL DORADO. Also called Eldorado. It is a myth created by Latin American **aboriginal** tribes to calm the desire for wealth and power of Spanish conquerors and explorers in the 16th century, aimed especially at **gold** and precious metals. The legend speculated about a place where streets, palaces, and monuments were made of solid gold, and where inhabitants covered their bodies with gold powder. Supposed to be located in the **Guayana** or Amazonia regions, it was relentlessly sought by explorers like **Nicolaus Federmann**, **Fillippe Von Hutten**, **Walter Raleigh**, and Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada. They led explorations in search of the treasures that led to reconnaissance of unknown territory. El Dorado could have been inspired by a legend of the Chibchas tribe: their chieftain in a religious ritual covered his body with gold powder and dove into the Guatavita Lagoon (in **Colombia**), leaving the powder along with precious stones and other exquisite materials.

EL TIGRE (CITY). Located in the south of **Anzoátegui State**, with an area of 703 square kilometers, it is the capital of the municipality of **Simón Rodríguez**. Founded in 1717, before the conquest of the region it was populated by **Caribbean people**, who put up stiff resistance to the Spaniards. During the independence period, El Tigre was a refuge for patriots. In 1840, Teodoro Falcón Campos, a Spanish landholder, created El Tigre Ranch. In the 1930s, it started to gain relevance as major **oil** discoveries were made in the neighboring areas by the **Mene Grande Oil Company** and Standard Oil of New Jersey, becoming an important oil and commercial settlement. In 1939, El Tigre was elevated to a municipality with the creation of the highway to Puerto La Cruz.

EL TOCUYO. *See* CARVAJAL, JUAN DE.

EL VENEZOLANO. Newspaper founded in 1840 by its first director, **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán**. It was created to spread the ideas of the **Liberal Party**, founded in the same year. The intellectual elite of liberalism wrote in its pages with the purpose of reorganizing the civil life of the incipient

republic. It was also very popular among common people. It was published until 1845.

EMIGRACIÓN A ORIENTE (MIGRATION TO THE EAST). Episode of the **War of Independence** in which more than 20,000 civilians of **Caracas** fled toward the **Oriente** (east region) in July 1814, escaping the advance of the troops of **José Tomás Boves**, which had defeated **Simón Bolívar** and **Santiago Mariño** in the Battle of La Puerta.

EMPARAN, VICENTE DE (Azpeitia, Spain, 1747–Puerto de Santa María, Spain, 1820). Governor and general commander of the province of **Cumaná** (1792–1804) and governor and general captain of **Venezuela** (1809–1810). Although he was an enlightened governor, with a very successful management in Cumaná, he is mostly remembered for being the commander-in-chief who was dismissed in **Caracas** on **April 19, 1810**, an event that began the process of independence. He was appointed by José I, gaining him the reputation of an *afrancesado* (name given to the followers of Napoleon and his brother José I). However, the Central Board of Spain ratified him for office after he abjured his Napoleonic affiliation. He arrived into a very politically troubled Caracas, where twice the establishment of an autonomous governing board had been suggested. When news of the Napoleonic victories in Andalusia came, political leaders anticipated the end of all organized resistance in Spain, and the city offered Emparan the chance to chair a meeting on 19 April 1810. He refused, so he was dismissed and expelled from the country. *See also* CORTÉS DE MADARIAGA, JOSÉ.

EMPRESAS POLAR. Largest provider of consumer goods in Venezuela. Founded in 1941 by **Lorenzo Mendoza Fleury** under the name of Cervecería Polar, the company started by manufacturing beer. Shortly after, they started producing precooked corn flour (Harina P.A.N.), a product success, the basic ingredient for **arepa**. In addition, they begun manufacturing and distributing other products, such as malt, corn oil, ice cream, and sparkling drinks in partnership with Pepsi-Cola Company. In 2001, they acquired local consumer goods manufacturer Mavesa and expanded operations to **Colombia**, the **United States**, and Mexico. In 1977, Fundación Empresas Polar started as the corporate social responsibility arm of the group. Today, the third generation of the Mendoza family operates the company. *See also* HISTORICAL DICTIONARY OF VENEZUELA; MENDOZA GIMÉNEZ, LORENZO.

ENGINEERING. The arrival of Europeans to Venezuela involved the foundation of villages, towns, and cities with square pattern. However, the

construction of fortifications in port areas, which included engineers, began in the 17th and 18th centuries, as defending the provinces from marine attacks by pirates and enemies of the kingdom became necessary. In the 18th century, the arrival to Venezuela of the first military engineers was the result of the **Compañía Guipuzcoana's** need to improve its defensive capacity. There were also works in the civil sector and in the building of hospitals, churches, and houses and primitive **roads** due to the difficulties presented by irregularities in the landforms of the country. During this period, well-known engineers such as Bartolomé Amphoux and Francisco Jacot arrived. At the institutional level, in 1760, Nicolás de Castro created the first school of engineering. With the end of this period and the beginning of the 19th century, engineering related to military works remained important. In 1827, **Simón Bolívar** created the chair of mathematics at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, with a special connection to military engineering. The **Mathematics Academy of Caracas** was also established by **Juan Manuel Cajigal**. In 1861, the College of Engineers was established. In 1863, the government inaugurated the Ministry of Development to give impulse to the building of roads. In 1879, **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** decreed the creation of the Ministry of Public Works. The development of **railroads** was a main part of the engineering of this period. At the beginning of the 20th century, when **Juan Vicente Gómez** sat in the presidential chair in 1908, the state regained its interest in investing in public works with an emphasis on civil engineering, structuring and prioritizing the integration of the national territory. This period witnessed the **oil boom**. Venezuela began to implement different petroleum engineering techniques. A measure taken in this direction during the 1920s was to send Venezuelan engineers to the **United States** to study the oil sector. In 1925, the Law of Exercise of the Engineer, Architect, and Surveyor Professions was designed to protect the Venezuelan professional practice of engineering against illegal exercise. At the educational and institutional levels, in 1949 the study of petroleum engineering began at the UCV, and in 1952 the University of Zulia created the School of Petroleum Engineering. The 1950s saw transcendent advances in the field of engineering, with high performance in other areas and improvements in the approach to oil. Construction of the petrochemical plant in Morón (**Carabobo State**) and of the **Maracaibo Bridge** began (designed by engineer Ricardo Morandi). In the second half of the 20th century, a significant entity in this field was the Venezuelan Petroleum Corporation and the **Corporación Venezolana de Guayana**, created during the government of **Rómulo Betancourt**. In addition to this, water resources allowed for the installation of the power plant in Macagua and subsequently the construction of the **Guri Dam** in the **Guayana Region**. Works of this type followed during the whole century, as well as the construction of the

towers of Parque Central and the Metro de Caracas, the subway system. Civil engineering works and the focus on construction continue in the country today, reflected in such projects as the extension of the Caracas subway, the second bridge over the **Orinoco River**, and the reconstruction of the cable car in **Mérida**.

EPIDEMICS. The history of epidemics starts in the 15th century with the arrival of Europeans. Some of the diseases that migrated with them were bubonic plague, typhus, diphtheria, black pox, and smallpox. Nevertheless, the arrival of African **slaves** also brought deadly diseases like yellow fever and malaria. On the other hand, the new migrants also had to suffer **aboriginal** diseases like *carare* and American trypanosomiasis, among others. The **Caracas Indians** almost disappeared due to a smallpox epidemic in the 1580s. Outbreaks of smallpox and yellow fever were periodic in the province during the 16th and 17th centuries. Nevertheless, it was not until 1760 that a smallpox epidemic became a major danger given its length and high death toll, having a large impact in Caracas. Some of the deadliest outbreaks of yellow fever took place in the 19th century. During the independence period, epidemics affected places like Caracas and the **Aragua Valley**. A particularly deadly outbreak decimated the aboriginal population of Caroní (**Bolívar State**) in 1817–1818. Yellow fever was prevalent throughout the 19th century and the first years of the 20th century. Other diseases with high impact were malaria and bubonic plague, from the colonial period up into the 20th century. In 1855, Venezuela was struck by cholera and in 1919 by the Spanish flu. Notwithstanding, malaria became the major challenge to Venezuelan society since its expansion made it impossible to live in many regions of the country. With the advance of sanitary policies and enhancements in public **health**, the disappearance of many of these epidemics was enabled during the 20th century. With the crisis of the model of development in Venezuela and the dismantling of formal sanitary institutions taken forward by the **Hugo Chávez** regime, some of these old diseases like malaria and diphtheria have reappeared. Along with it, other new diseases, such as dengue and the Zika Virus, have entered Venezuela. *See also* GABALDÓN, ARNOLDO; TEJERA GUEVARA, ENRIQUE.

ERNST, ADOLFO (Primkenau, Prussia, 1832–Caracas, 1899). Professor, naturalist, and botanist. He was the first person to express and promote the ideas of positivism in Venezuela. In 1867, he started the Society of Physical and Natural **Sciences of Caracas**, in 1874 he founded the National Museum, and in 1876 he assumed the directorship of the National Library. In 1874, he took the chair in natural history at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**,

where he proclaimed the theories of Charles Darwin, Jean-Baptiste Lamarck, and Charles Lyell about botany, geography, and biology. His teaching had a great impact on disciples such as **Lisandro Alvarado**, **Rafael Villavicencio**, and **José Gil Fortoul**. His published work is diverse and extensive, especially in botany, zoology, and ethnography.

ESCALANTE, DIÓGENES (Queniquea, 1879–Miami, United States, 1964). Diplomat and politician. He served in the Venezuelan Foreign Service from 1903 to 1945, representing Venezuela at the League of Nations and as ambassador in the United Kingdom and in the **United States**. He is one of the authors of the February Program of 1936, issued by **Eleazar López Contreras**. In 1945, he returned from his activities as diplomat and was nominated for the presidency of Venezuela by ruling party **Partido Democrático Venezolano** as successor to **Isaías Medina Angarita**. Rival groups also seeking office supported his appointment (former President **Eleazar López Contreras** and **Acción Democrática**), transforming Escalante into a consensus candidate, ready to lead a transition toward democratic reform. A few weeks later, Escalante suffered a stress crisis that revealed a personality disorder, preventing him from continuing in the presidential race. Without Escalante, the consensus was broken and a political crisis mounted until **October 18, 1945**, when a coup d'état overthrew Medina's government. Escalante traveled to the United States for treatment in a plane sent by longtime friend President Harry S. Truman. He never recovered from his illness.

ESCALONA, JUAN (Caracas, 1768–Caracas, 1833). Great-grandson of **José Oviedo y Baños**. He was a member of the Executive Triumvirate, along with **Cristóbal Mendoza** and **Baltasar Padrón**, named president by the **Congress of 1811** for the period between March 1811 and February 1812, during the **First Republic**. In that position, he signed the Declaration of Independence. With a career as a military officer, when he finished his term he rejoined the army under the command of **Francisco de Miranda**. He was imprisoned after the **Capitulation of San Mateo**. In 1813, he rejoined the struggle for independence under the leadership of **Simón Bolívar**. Between June and July 1814, he defended the city of **Valencia** from a royalist siege. After the supplies of food and weaponry were entirely drained, he capitulated to **José Tomás Boves**, who did not respect the terms of the agreement. Chasing and killing a large number of republicans, Boves perpetrated one of the most atrocious episodes of the war. Escalona survived and came to Caracas, remaining hidden until 1820. In 1823, under the orders of **José Antonio Páez**, he was the second in command at the **Assault of Puerto Cabello**, which marked the end of the war in Venezuela. Later that year, he was appointed

mayor of the **Department of Venezuela**, the first civil authority, where his confrontation with Páez, general commander of the department and first military authority, started the **La Cusiata** movement in 1826. In 1829, he signed the document that ignored Bolívar's authority and requested the separation of Venezuela from **Gran Colombia**.

ESCALONA, PHIDIAS DANILO (Caracas, 1933–Caracas, 1985). **Radio** presenter, entertainer, and disc jockey. He was the first to use the term *salsa* for contemporary Caribbean music. In 1964, he began producing a program focused in the Caribbean music of that moment at the Caracas station Radiodifusora Venezuela. The name of this radio program made history: *La hora de la salsa, el sabor y el bembé* (The Hour of the *Salsa*, the Taste and the *Bembé*). This program was quite successful, and the new Caribbean music Latino musicians and others from the Caribbean played in the **United States**, especially in New York, began to be called *salsa*. The friendship of Escalona with important musicians, such as Tito Rodríguez, contributed to popularizing the term. Actually, salsa is a mix of several Caribbean styles, particularly of **Cuba**, with jazz and even rock. Escalona gave it unity with a common name. *See also* D'LEÓN, ÓSCAR.

ESCOTET, JUAN CARLOS (Madrid, Spain, 1959–). Banker. Owner of Banesco, a **bank** conglomerate with operations in Venezuela, Spain, the **United States**, Panama, Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic, **Colombia**, Switzerland, Germany, Portugal, the United Kingdom, and France, he arrived in Venezuela at a young age when his parents decided to emigrate. After a successful career as a stockbroker, in 1995 he bought seven small financial entities to merge them into Caja Familia, which later also merged with one of the largest banks in Venezuela, the Banco Unión. Soon Banesco, the name of the new entity (“Ban” from *Banco* and “esco” for Escotet), became one of the largest in the country and extended to insurance, as well as in Panama and Puerto Rico, initiating one of the largest financial conglomerates in Latin America. In 2016, according to *Forbes*, he was the richest man in Venezuela, with a net worth of 3.7 billion dollars, making him the 421st richest person in the world.

ESCUELA DE MÚSICA DE CHACAO. Name historically given to the musical movement sponsored by Father **Pedro Palacios y Sojo** (known as Father Sojo) during the 1770s. In a sort of *tertulia* (a colonial Enlightenment session to discuss ideas) in his Hacienda La Floresta, located in the town of Chacao, neighboring **Caracas**, around 30 composers and 150 instrumentalists met and practiced, of whom the most important were **José Ángel Lamas**, Juan Manuel Olivares, and Bartolomé Bello. *See also* MUSIC.

ESPAÑA, JOSE MARÍA (La Guaira, 1761–Caracas, 1799). Merchant, farmer, and militia officer. He is known as one of the drivers of the insurrectionist movement named the **Gual and España Conspiracy**. Influenced by the French Revolution, in 1797 he organized a rebellion with Manuel Gual and Juan Bautista Picornell. After their intentions were discovered, España took refuge in **Trinidad**. Two years later, however, he decided to return to Venezuela and continue the struggle. He was captured in April 1799 and hanged by the neck, his body quartered, and his head fried in oil. The rest of his body was sent to different parts of **Caracas** and La Guaira to be displayed as a reminder of how the king punished treason.

ESSEQUIBO TERRITORY. Also known as Guayana Esequiba, it is a region of 159,542 square kilometers located in the *guayanés* shield, west of the Essequibo River to the milestone on the top of Roraima Mountain, heading north to the Atlantic Ocean, south to **Brazil**, and west to **Delta Amacuro** and **Bolívar States**. The area is administered by the Cooperative Republic of **Guyana**, but its sovereignty is claimed by Venezuela based on the **Geneva Agreement**. It is one of the long-standing conflicts between Venezuela, Great Britain, and the Netherlands. It has **economic** relevance due to minerals (**gold**, diamonds, bauxite) and its landscape, showing incipient **agriculture** and **oil** extraction. This territory was discovered by the Spanish conquerors, but the Dutch West Indies Company occupied the eastern bank of the Essequibo River in the beginning of the 17th century, settling a colony originally named New Zeeland. This colony, along with Demerara and Berbice, passed to British control in 1814 and in 1831 was integrated into British Guiana. Even though the territory on the western bank of the Essequibo river continued to belong to the Spanish Crown, attached to the province of **Guayana**, the Dutch and English colonists settled in it. Once the province of Guayana was integrated into **Gran Colombia**, the new republic protested these incursions, starting a century of diplomatic conflicts. Great Britain aspired to control the entrance to the **Orinoco River**. In 1899, the **Paris Arbitral Award** gave Britain control of the Essequibo Territory. Venezuela, based on documentary evidence, considered the treaty void. In 1962, Venezuela petitioned the **United Nations** to endorse its claim. In 1966, the **Geneva Agreement** was signed among Venezuela, Great Britain, and the colonial government of British Guiana, agreeing to reach a solution to the dispute. The signing of this agreement was a recognition of the Venezuelan claim. Since then, there have been minor advances, with some crises that have almost triggered armed conflict. Since the 2000s, a weakened Venezuelan diplomacy has been losing ground, which has become even more relevant as major deposits of oil and gas were found in the offshore waters of the territory. *See also* FOREIGN POLICY.

EXTERNAL DEBT. The origins of Venezuelan external debt can be found in the **War of Independence**, when in order to acquire weaponry and other material, **Gran Colombia** issued bonds in the London financial market, obtaining an estimated 15 million pounds sterling. In 1830, when the separation of Colombia occurred, Venezuela assumed part of its debt, representing 28.5 percent of the total. This debt was converted into bonds of public debt. Venezuela did not issue more debt until 1862, despite the revolts against the government and the cyclical **economic** crises caused by the fluctuation of **coffee** prices. Between 1862 and 1864, the republic went to the London debt market to obtain resources to mitigate the impact of the **Federal War** for 1 and 1.5 million pounds sterling, respectively. In 1896, additional debt was acquired from the German Disconto Gesellschaft **Bank** for 50 million **bolívars**. Venezuela started the 20th century unable to pay its debt, causing the **Venezuelan Crisis of 1902**. After this episode, the **Juan Vicente Gómez** regime made efforts to repay the debt, and in 1930 Venezuela became one of the few countries in history to pay in full its external debt. Until the 1950s, the country stood debt free. During the 1970s and the **Carlos Andrés Pérez** administration, external debt rose substantially, and during the 1980s Venezuela had to restructure it in order to be able to pay it. In the 1990s, external debt through commitments to the International Monetary Fund and other financial institutions was obtained, and by the end of the 20th century Venezuela owed around 28 billion dollars. In the 2000s, the **Hugo Chávez** regime increased substantially the external debt, issued both to the republic and to the state **oil** company **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.**, until then a debt-free corporation, in order to finance its massive public spending, imports expansion, and foreign policy. This occurred despite the 800 billion dollars received in oil rents during the period. By 2017, external debt exceeded 100 billion dollars, and the mismanagement of public finances, corruption, and decline of oil prices placed the country on the brink of financial default, which had already taken place in ten occasions during republican history. *See also* RENTIER CAPITALISM.

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FAJARDO, FRANCISCO (Margarita Island, c. 1528–Cumaná, 1564). Conqueror. The son of a Spaniard and an indigenous woman, he began the conquest of the **Caracas** Valley. In 1560, he established the Hato de San Francisco, where the capital of Venezuela now sits, but it was soon depopulated after the resistance of native **Caracas Indians** led by **Guaicaipuro**. He was executed in **Cumaná** due to differences with the mayor of that city.

FALCÓN (STATE). Located in the northwest of the country, it has an area of 24,800 square kilometers (2.71 percent of Venezuela territory) and a **population** of 902,847 (2011 census, 3.11 percent of the country). Composed of 25 municipalities (Acosta, Bolívar, and Buchivacoa, among others) and 79 parishes, with **Coro** as capital, Falcón is divided into four natural regions: coastal plains, mountains, *sierra coriana* valleys, and the Paraguaná Peninsula. The most important **economic** activity is the refining of **oil** in the Complejo Refinador Paraguaná. However, it has other activities, like fishing, **agriculture**, cattle raising, industries of consumer goods, and wood and furniture production. The city of Coro was the first settlement in Venezuela under the **Welsers**, and from there they began to explore the territory. During the conquest, the territory was part of the **province of Caracas** until 1815, when it was changed to the **province of Coro**. During **Gran Colombia**, it was part of the **Zulia** Department. In 1859, after the **Federal War**, it was confirmed as a province. In 1874, it became the present Falcón State.

FALCÓN, JUAN CRISÓSTOMO (Hato Tabe, 1820–Fort-de-France, Martinique, 1870). Military officer, politician, **caudillo**, and president of Venezuela between 1863 and 1868. Coming from a liberal landowner family of **Coro**, he attended the National College of that region. He was highly cultured and had a taste for **literature** and **art**. He began his military life participating in the defense of the government of **José Tadeo Monagas** against the rebellion led by **José Antonio Páez**. Once Monagas consolidated power, he began to climb in his military career, achieving in 1857 the rank of general and military chief of the province of **Barquisimeto**. During that time, he married Luisa Pachano, from another major liberal and landowning

family of Coro, while her sister married **Ezequiel Zamora**, who was appointed military commander of the province. Therefore, Falcón became the main political leader of the region. After the **Revolución de Marzo**, he went into exile in the West Indies along with Zamora. When the **Liberal Party** decided to organize a revolution to seize power, he was named commander of the rebel forces and appointed Zamora as his second. This rebellion broke out in Coro in February 1859 and became known to history as the **Federal War**. Zamora, who landed first, quickly showed great military capability and popular leadership and in fact directed the war. On 24 July 1859, Falcón disembarked in Palmasola (**Falcón State**) and published his famous “Proclama de Palmasola,” in which he shared his democratic thinking. After the death of Zamora, he assumed the leadership of the federal army, being defeated at the Battle of Coplé (1860). From that moment, he stayed for a couple of years fighting in the area of Coro without taking any major actions toward Caracas. He met with **José Antonio Páez** in the field of **Carabobo** (1861) to reach an agreement to put an end to the war. He rejected the proposal of a unity government with the Páez president with him as vice president, and the conflict continued for two more years. In 1863, he commissioned **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, who had become a close associate, to organize an offensive in the center of the country, culminating in the Battle of the Altos Mirandinos and the signing of the **Treaty of Coche**, which ended the conflict. From that moment, he was appointed provisional president. During his term, he issued the famous Guarantees Decree (18 August 1863), which enshrined many rights, such as care by the state in case of calamity and the abolition of the death penalty. The Constituent Assembly of 1864 awarded him the title of “great citizen” and the rank of marshal as an honorary recognition, although those did not exist in the scale of Venezuelan military ranks. His government faced great difficulties, such as the destruction of the **economy** due to war and the proliferation of caudillos with aspirations to power. Following the same pattern, the new administration was shaken by cases of inefficiency and corruption. Between 1863 and 1868, he had to be almost continuously on military campaign fighting uprisings, leaving the daily management in the hands of Guzmán Blanco, who was his vice president. In 1868, an alliance of opponents with **José Tadeo Monagas** as their commander organized the **Revolución Azul** and sent him out of power. He went into exile, making a long trip through Europe, leaving interesting reflections on art and history. He died of cancer on his way back to Venezuela on the island of Martinique.

FALKE INVASION. A maritime invasion of the eastern Venezuela coast, it was the most serious and largest rebellion aimed at ending the dictatorship of **Juan Vicente Gómez**. It was led and financed by General **Román Delgado**

Chalbaud. In August 1929, a group of Venezuelans exiled in Europe took part in an expeditionary force that landed at **Cumaná**, expecting to ignite a national movement to overthrow Gómez. The force departed from Danzig (now Gdansk in Poland) aboard the German ship *Falke*, bought by Delgado Chalbaud, together with an arsenal of weapons and ammunition. Delgado counted on the support of revolutionary troops in the area close to Cumaná raised and led by Pedro Elías Aristeiguieta, a local **caudillo** from an affluent family. As the government had discovered the operation, once the *Falke* invaders landed in Cumaná they were quickly repelled by loyalist forces led by Emilio Fernández. It all ended in a terrible failure, and Delgado Chalbaud died on-site among other invaders. *See also* POCATERRA, JOSÉ RAFAEL.

FANTOCHES. *See* MARTÍNEZ, LEONCIO “LEO.”

FE Y ALEGRÍA (FAITH AND JOY). International movement to support popular education founded in 1955 by the Jesuit Father **Jesús María Vélaz** and the worker Abraham Reyes in Catia, a working-class neighborhood of **Caracas**. With the goal of contributing to the education of poor people, this movement establishes free and high-quality schools managed by priests, nuns, or committed laypeople. Since 1990, the state has supported the movement with subsidies. Due to its success, Fe y Alegría has extended to 19 countries (Argentina, Bolivia, **Brazil**, Chad, Chile, **Colombia**, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras, Italy, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Spain, and Uruguay). Today the movement is organized in the Federación Internacional Fe y Alegría, based in Bogotá, Colombia.

FEBRES CORDERO, GEORGINA (Mérida, 1861–Mérida, 1925). Venezuelan nun. In 1890, she entered a convent of the Franciscan Clarist Sisters. In 1900, she was director and administrator of the San Juan de Dios Hospice. In 1903, she founded the congregation of the Dominican Sisters of Santa Rosa de Lima. In 2005, her beatification process began. She was the sister of **Tulio Febres Cordero**.

FEBRES CORDERO, TULIO (Mérida, 1860–Mérida, 1938). Writer, historian, university professor, and **journalist**. He was vice rector (1892–1924) and honorary rector (1936) of the University of **Mérida**. He was a man with eclectic and versatile interests, and his work is dispersed across several literary genres. His main effort focused on the history of Mérida and the **Andean Region**, disseminated in articles, speeches, and reports. It consists of profound descriptions of culture, language, tradition, myth, and legend. As a journalist, he founded, directed, and collaborated on various **newspapers** and

magazines, including *Páginas Sueltas* (1882–1883), *El Comercio* (1884), *El Centavo* (1900), *El Billete* (1902), and *El Mosaico* (1921–1923). In 1978, his heirs donated his library, which is open to researchers in the city of Mérida.

FEBRUARY 4, 1992. Military attempt to oust the democratically elected government of **Carlos Andrés Pérez**. Led by midranking **army** officers, among them Francisco Arias Cárdenas, Jesús Urdaneta Hernández, Joel Acosta, and **Hugo Chávez**, it assaulted the presidential palace of Miraflores and La Casona presidential residence in **Caracas**. Although the movement was successful in **Valencia** and **Maracaibo** (they took over government buildings and military garrisons), it failed in Caracas, where Chávez led operations and surrendered. The rebellion caused many civilian and military casualties. The leading conspirators were jailed for two years, but despite their actions, President **Rafael Caldera** pardoned them and restored their full political rights.

FEDECÁMARAS. Acronym of the employer association Federación de Cámaras y Asociaciones de Comercio y Producción de Venezuela. Founded in 1944 as the joint federation of 22 chambers and private associations of employers, it represents the four most important sectors of the **economy**: commerce, industry, **agriculture**, and cattle raising. Among its objectives are the promotion and protection of private property and free enterprise and the support of corporate social responsibility.

FEDERAL WAR (1859–1864). Civil war also known as the Long War or War of Five Years. Although at first it was a confrontation between the **Conservative** and **Liberal Parties**, it quickly acquired the connotation of a social war, in which the peasant foundations of society rebelled against the elite, which was called an oligarchy by the Liberals. Claims concerning access to land, the restitution of communal lands to **indigenous** people, and racial equality were contested in the movement. Officially, the Liberal Party's primary offer was the establishment of a federal system, but this was relevant only for a small group of provincial elites. From the beginning, the war had a marked guerrilla character throughout the national territory, in which **Ezequiel Zamora** quickly distinguished himself as a leader of great social significance and military talent. During the war, only two real battles occurred: the **Santa Inés Battle** (10 December 1859), in which Zamora gained a great victory that is still studied in military schools for its tactical qualities; and the Coplé Battle (17 February 1860), in which the Conservatives defeated **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**. Zamora's death in San Carlos (10 June 1860) removed a clear source of leadership on the Liberal or federal side, which

was replaced by Falcón, technically the commander-in-chief of the forces from the beginning. After the defeat of Coplé, the federal army was divided into numerous guerrilla groups that causes anarchy in Venezuelan territory. In 1861, trying to bring order to the country, **José Antonio Páez** instituted a dictatorial government. Undertaking numerous reforms and trying to reach an agreement with the Liberals, Páez offered a unity government including both parties. The effort was unsuccessful, and **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, who was promoted to general during the war, began a major offensive on Caracas, known as the Battle of the Altos de Guacaipuro (today the region is called Altos Mirandinos). With the maneuver, Guzmán Blanco forced the government to negotiate at the Coche ranch, a hacienda at that time on the outskirts of Caracas, and finally the **Treaty of Coche** was signed. From then until 1899, the Liberal Party ruled Venezuela.

FEDERMANN, NICOLAUS (Ulm, Germany, c. 1505–Valladolid, Spain, 1542). Factor (country manager) of the **Welser** merchant house, expedition leader, and governor of the **province of Venezuela**. Hired by the Augsburg-based family, in 1529 he sailed to the recently obtained Welser territories in Venezuela to support **Ambrosio Alfinger**. In 1530, he arrived to **Coro**, the main outpost of the company in Venezuela. By September, Federmann embarked on his first expedition, aiming to find a way to connect with the South Sea, the southernmost limit of Welser territories, which would enable them to control a highly profitable spice trade route. At the time, it was believed that the Caribbean coast and the pass to the South Sea were geographically close. Federmann was able to explore the area around Coro and **Barquisimeto** returning in 1531 with a large quantity of **gold**. Alfinger imprisoned him on charges of leaving Coro without authorization and of hiding some of the gold. He was condemned to exile in America for four years. During his exile, Federmann wrote *Historia Indiana*, an account of his experiences published in 1557. In 1535, he returned to Venezuela as a lieutenant to **Jorge Spira**, the new governor. In 1536, he was in charge of an expedition to the Welser territory's westernmost limit in Cabo de la Vela, arriving there and founding the town of Nuestra Señora de las Nieves. In 1537, he prepared a new and more ambitious expedition, which took him to the Venezuelan **llanos**, crossing the **Andes** to Colombian plains, and in 1539 he met with Spanish explorers Jimenez de Quesada and Sebastian Belalcazar in the Bogotá Valley, becoming one of the founders of Santa Fe de Bogotá. Federmann agreed with Jimenez de Quesada to cede his claim over the discovered province and settled on returning to Spain to receive a delimitation of their territories. Arriving in Spain in 1540, he went to Ghent (Flanders, now Belgium) to meet with the Emperor Charles V and Bartholomeus Welser, head of the family.

Welser accused him of not meeting his contract. Imprisoned, he died in Spain while on trial.

FERNÁNDEZ, CARMELO (San José de Guama, 1809–Caracas, 1887). Painter. A nephew of **José Antonio Páez**, he was sent first to **Caracas** and later to New York (1823), where he received drawing lessons. He made some paintings for **Agustín Codazzi**'s *Atlas físico y político de la República de Venezuela* and some portraits for **Rafael María Baralt**'s *Resumen de la historia de Venezuela*. He also drew the 1842 repatriation of **Simón Bolívar**'s body, an important testimonial picture of that time.

FERNÁNDEZ MORÁN, HUMBERTO (La Cañada de Urdaneta, 1924–Stockholm, Sweden, 1999). Physician and scientist. In 1944, he graduated as a doctor of **medical** sciences from the University of Munich, Germany, and immediately validated his title at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**. Between 1945 and 1946, he stayed in the **United States** on an internship in neurology and neuropathology at George Washington University. In 1946, he moved to Sweden, where he had a residence of neurosurgery at Serafimer Hospital in Stockholm (1946–1948) and worked as a researcher in the area of electronic microscopy at the Nobel Institute of Physics (1947–1949) and at the Institute of Cellular and Genetic Research, part of the Karolinska Institutet (1948–1951). Being involved with electronic microscopy, he invented the diamond scalpel. In 1951, he received a master's degree in cell biology and the following year his doctorate in biophysics from the University of Stockholm. In 1954, he founded the Venezuelan Institute of Neurology and Brain Research (IVNIC), a high-level research center inspired by North American and European institutes and incorporating the latest advances in electronic microscopy to study the brain. As the first **scientific** and technological center in Latin America, it installed the first nuclear reactor of the continent. In 1955, he inaugurated the chair in biophysics at the UCV. In 1958, a few days before the fall of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, he was appointed minister of education. That year he took up residence in the United States, where he taught at the University of Chicago and developed the high-resolution electronic dark-field microscope. In 1967, he received the John Scott Medal for his discoveries, a distinction also awarded to Marie Curie, Thomas Edison, Orville and Wilbur Wright, Nikola Tesla, Jonas Salk, and Alexander Fleming. In 1970, he was hired by NASA to work on the Apollo Project in the field of physico-chemical analysis of lunar rocks. *See also* INSTITUTO VENEZOLANO DE INVESTIGACIONES CIENTÍFICAS.

FIFTH REPUBLIC. Name given by **Hugo Chávez** and his followers to the **Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela**, born in 1999, based on the conviction

that the **Bolivarian Revolution** refounded the Venezuelan state, breaking with all previous institutions. Due to its partisan character, it is a category that generates controversy and is not accepted by many.

FINE ARTS ACADEMY. One of the first institutions to encourage **art** in Venezuela. Officially named the Fine Arts Institute, it was created by executive order in 1877 during **Francisco Linares Alcantara**'s administration. It was composed of three academies: drawing and painting, sculpture, and **music**. It was directed by great exponents of the artistic field like Ramón de la Plaza and **Antonio Herrera Toro**, and had several brilliant students, including **Héctor Poleo**, **Armando Reverón**, **Manuel Cabré**, **Alejandro Colina**, and **César Rengifo**, among others. Nonetheless, the opposition that some members made to Herrera Toro and the creation of the **Círculo de Bellas Artes** marked the decline of the institution, and by the mid-20th century it is not mentioned in Venezuelan art history. In its former building is now located the **José Ángel Lamas School of Music**.

FIRST REPUBLIC. Name assigned by Venezuelan historiography to the first republican and independent state of **Venezuela**, which lasted from the Declaration of Independence on **July 5, 1811**, to the **Capitulation of San Mateo** on 25 July 1812.

FLORES, JUAN JOSÉ (Puerto Cabello, 1800–Isla de Puná, Ecuador, 1864). Military officer in the **War of Independence** and president of Ecuador between 1830 and 1845. He joined the patriotic cause in 1819, participating under **Simón Bolívar**'s command on the Nueva Granada Campaign. In 1821, he took part in the **Carabobo Battle**. In 1823, he arrived in Ecuador as commander-general of the army. In 1829, he was second in command to **Antonio José de Sucre**. With the dissolution of **Gran Colombia**, in 1830 he was elected the first constitutional president of Ecuador, remaining in power until 1845.

FOREIGN POLICY. Venezuelan foreign policy has varied according to the nature of the country's government. During the early years as an independent nation, it could not delineate a concrete international policy due to the long period of internal turbulence, focused on **boundary** demarcation with **Colombia**, **Brazil**, and British Guiana (later **Guyana**) over the **Essequibo Territory**. At the beginning of the 20th century, the **Venezuelan Crisis of 1902**, concerned with **external debt**, made relations with the European powers and with the **United States** difficult. Although Venezuela remained neutral during most of the Second World War, until the end of the conflict when it took sides with the Allies, it participated indirectly by exporting **oil**

to Allied forces. In the 1950s, during the **military dictatorship** period, the country maintained close ties with like regimes in Latin America and with the United States. The reestablishment of the democratic system after the events of **January 23, 1958**, generated significant changes in Venezuela's foreign policy, being framed within the Constitution of 1961 in three basic guidelines: democracy, oil, and an active international presence. Under the Betancourt Doctrine (postulated by President **Rómulo Betancourt**), the country only recognized democratic governments. In the 1980s, supporting the efforts of the **Organization of American States**, Venezuela integrated the Contadora Group to seek peace in the armed conflicts of Central America. In recent times, during the **Bolivarian Revolution**, the Venezuelan government has approached governments with a clear leftist and anti-imperialist line, especially **Cuba**, while mishaps and distancing have eroded diplomatic relations with the United States, Colombia, and Mexico. In 2004, Venezuela promoted **ALBA**, a Latin American and Caribbean integration organ inspired by anti-imperialist thought. Venezuela has held a seat on the **United Nations Security Council** five times, from 1962 to 1963, from 1977 to 1978, from 1986 to 1987, from 1992 to 1993, and from 2015 to 2016.

FORTIQUE, ALEJO (Valencia, 1797–London, England, 1845). Lawyer, politician, and diplomat. A follower of **José Antonio Páez**, in 1829 he was part of the secessionist movement that ended **Gran Colombia**. In 1830, he was elected deputy by the **province of Caracas** to the **Valencia Congress**. In 1839, he was appointed minister to Great Britain and two year later authored the documentation for Venezuela's claims in the **boundary** disputes with British Guiana over the **Essequibo Territory**. He also signed the treaty on 30 March 1845 in which Spain recognized the sovereignty of Venezuela. His remains were transferred to the **National Pantheon** in 1876.

FOURTH REPUBLIC. Name commonly given to the Venezuelan republic that emerged in 1830 after the separation from **Gran Colombia**. The followers of the **Bolivarian Revolution** declare it lasted until 1999, when a new republic was established. Colloquially, however, this category is used to refer only to the 40 years of democratic system established on **January 23, 1958**, lasting until **Hugo Chávez** came to power.

FRÍAS, CARLOS EDUARDO (Caracas, 1906–Caracas, 1986). Writer, **journalist**, and pioneer of advertising in Venezuela. Along with **Arturo Uslar Pietri** and **Guillermo Meneses**, he was one of the leading exponents of Venezuelan literary modernism. In 1924, his short story "La quema" was published in the magazine *Fantoches*, and in 1926 "Canícula" was published

in *Élite*. In 1928, while studying law at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, he actively participated in the events of the Student Week, becoming part of **Generación del 28**. He remained in prison between 1928 and 1930. In 1930, a collection of his short stories was published under the title *Canícula*. Between 1933 and 1936, he worked at the magazine *Élite*, becoming chief editor and director. He was a founding member of the **newspaper** *Ahora*. Between 1936 and 1937, he was secretary of the Venezuela delegation to the League of Nations. In 1946, he founded ARS Advertising, the first Venezuelan advertising agency, the presidency of which he held until his death.

FRÓMETA, LUIS MARIA “BILLO” (Pimentel, Dominican Republic, 1915–Caracas, 1988). Musician, orchestra conductor, and composer. Known by his nickname “Billo,” in 1937 he traveled to Venezuela with his orchestra, the Santo Domingo Jazz Band. When Rafael Leonidas Trujillo’s regime in the Dominican Republic required him to change the name of his band to the Ciudad Trujillo Jazz Band (Ciudad Trujillo was the new name of the capital Santo Domingo), Frómeta decided to settle in **Caracas**. Thus, he renamed his orchestra Billo’s Happy Boys and started a successful career playing Caribbean rhythms and Venezuelan merengues. Some of the pieces Frómeta played were composed by Agustín Lara and signed with pseudonyms, as he was living in Caracas at the time. In 1939, the orchestra changed its name to Billo’s Caracas Boys. In the following 50 years, this orchestra became the most popular in Venezuela. In 1987, the Billos played in Santa Cruz de Tenerife, in the Canary Islands (Spain), to a crowd of 250,000 people. The *Guinness World Records* considered it the largest concert in history. The music of Billo Frómeta was very influential in contemporary Venezuelan culture, and many of his compositions today are considered classics, especially his themes about his beloved city of Caracas.

FUEENMAYOR, JUAN BAUTISTA (Maracaibo, 1905–Los Teques, 1998). Politician, historian, and lawyer. A member of **Generación del 28**, his political life began with the student protest of 1928 against **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s tyranny. After Gómez’s death, he helped to establish the first oil unions and led the oil strike of 1936. Cofounder of the **Communist Party of Venezuela**, between 1937 and 1946 he became its first general secretary. In 1975, he started the publication of his 20-volume work *Historia de la Venezuela política contemporánea*. Between 1977 and 1989, he was rector of Santa María University of Caracas.

G

GABALDÓN, ARNALDO (Trujillo, 1909–Caracas, 1990). Doctor. He is known for having promoted the fight against malaria, one of the deadliest diseases in Venezuela, until practically eradicating it. After specializing in protozoology at Johns Hopkins University (1935) with a scholarship from the **Rockefeller** Foundation, in 1936 he was appointed director of malariology at the Ministry of **Health**. In 1945, after controlling the **epidemic** with environmental sanitation and medical treatment, he instituted a massive DDT fumigation campaign, which would eventually become one of the great successes in the history of health policies in Latin America. By the beginning of the 1960s, malaria was effectively eradicated, except for occasional cases. Between 1959 and 1964, he served as minister of health in the **Rómulo Betancourt** government. He left a body of work of more than 200 studies published in various magazines and books.

GALLEGOS, RÓMULO (Caracas, 1884–Caracas, 1969). Writer and politician, first Venezuelan president elected by universal suffrage, in office between February and November 1948. He is considered one of the most important figures in national **literature**. In 1904, he entered the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** to study law, but he quit a year after. From 1903, he began his intellectual activity as editor, along with F. S. Bermúdez, of the weekly *El Arcoiris*. In 1909, once **Cipriano Castro** was overthrown, he became a founding member of *La Alborada*, a magazine where he also published some articles. In 1910, he made his debut as a storyteller with his short story “Las Rosas” in *El Cojo Ilustrado*, then the most important cultural magazine of the country. Between 1912 and 1930, he worked as a high school teacher in **Caracas** and **Barcelona**. Due his pedagogic labor, he was known as “Maestro” Gallegos or “Maestro de Juventudes” (Teacher of the Young). During that time, he met the students who in the future would make him one of the most representative figures of the party **Acción Democrática (AD)**, such as **Rómulo Betancourt** and **Raúl Leoni**. In 1920, he published his first novel, *El ultimo Solar* (republished in 1930 under the name *Reinaldo Solar*, as it is actually known), well received by the critics of that time. His intellectual activity continued as director of the magazine *Actualidades*. In 1929,

after the publication of *Doña Bárbara*, which gained an international reputation for both the author and Venezuelan literature, he went into exile in Spain when **Juan Vicente Gómez** offered him an official position as senator due to the fame he gained. Abroad he published his novels *Cantaclaro* in 1934 and *Canaima* in 1935, which along with *Doña Bárbara* are his most important narrative works according to critics. With Gómez's demise in 1935, he returned and began intense political activity as a member of AD. In 1937, he was elected a deputy to the National Congress and was a candidate in the election of 1941. He also continued writing fiction and in the forthcoming years published his novels *Pobre negro* (1937), *Sobre la misma tierra* (1941), and *El forastero* (1942). In 1947, he was elected president in the first universal suffrage elections of Venezuela, with a notorious advantage over his opponents. His short regime, part of the **Trienio** period, was characterized by constant political agitation from all social sectors, especially among **political parties** and the military. There were several acts of violence on political opponents, and most of them were excluded from public positions. There were constant student protests at universities, which became a problem from an educational point of view. In the field of law, it was a very important time, with the reform of the Hydrocarbon Law imposing the famous 50–50 split, which increased the royalties obtained by the government from **oil** companies. On 19 November 1948, Gallegos met with the **armed forces'** **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**, and **Luis Felipe Llovera Páez**, and they asked him to fulfill a number of requests, one of the most important being to expell Rómulo Betancourt from the country. Gallegos refused, and their petitions were not fulfilled. On 24 November, soldiers detained him, and a military government junta was installed by Pérez Jiménez, Delgado Chalbaud, and Llovera Páez. The coup ended the Trienio. Gallegos was banished along with his family until the dictatorship fell on **January 23, 1958**. That year he was awarded the National Prize for Literature and was admitted as a member of the **Venezuelan Academy of Language**. In his honor, in 1965, the **International Novel Prize Rómulo Gallegos** was created. In the eyes of critics, the narrative works of Gallegos belong to the *criollismo* movement, which he took to its best aesthetic possibilities. Many of his plots are related to the conflicts between the values of rural Venezuela and the new urban society. In that sense, many of his books set out a conflict between the civil thinking of that time (**education**, sanitary policies, laws) and the barbarian attitudes of national inhabitants (marked by violence, corruption, crime, **caudillismo**, and immoral behaviors). After his death in 1969, the Centro de Estudios Latinoamericanos Rómulo Gallegos (CELARG) was created in 1974 as a tribute to his memory.

GARCÍA AROCHA, HUMBERTO (Caracas, 1912–Caracas, 1995). Physician, university professor, researcher scientist, and public servant. In 1936, he received a degree as a doctor of medical **sciences** from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**. In 1938, he was elected as a councilor to integrate Caracas City Hall during the first municipal elections, for the period 1939–1942. Between 1939 and 1940, he completed graduate studies in physiology at Yale University. Between 1945 and 1946, he was minister of **education** during the first government of **Rómulo Betancourt**. He proposed Decree 321, which laid out the principles of an educational state and generated a lot of controversy and strong opposition among religious and private schools. In 1948, after the the government of **Rómulo Gallegos** was ousted, he went into exile in Canada, where he served as a professor in the Department of Physiology at McGill University. His teaching and research work at the UCV lasted from 1935 to 1976, when he retired as associate professor and head of the Department of Physiology. Between 1959 and 1976, he served as director of the Institute of Experimental **Medicine**. He published numerous papers: 35 on scientific research, 42 on social medicine, and 32 on university education. In 1988, he was awarded the **Humboldt Prize**, given by the Humboldt Foundation to distinguished career educators.

GARCÍA BACCA, JUAN DAVID (Pamplona, Spain, 1901–Quito, Ecuador, 1992). Philosopher. After studying in his native country, France, and Switzerland, he taught at the University of Barcelona (Spain). Due to the Spanish Civil War, he went into exile and worked in Ecuador and Mexico. In 1946, he was hired by the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. His work was fundamental for the development of modern philosophy in Venezuela. He was the author of a wide spectrum of works, in which can be highlighted *Lógica matemática* (1935), *Invitación a filosofar* (1940–1942), *Antología del pensamiento filosófico de Colombia (de 1647 a 1761)* (1955), *Antología del pensamiento filosófico venezolano. Vol. I: Siglos XVII–XVIII* (1964), and *Filosofía de la música* (1990). He translated and commented on Plato's complete works in *Obras completas* (1980–1982).

GARMENDIA, JULIO (El Tocuyo, 1898–Caracas, 1977). Writer. Living in Caracas since 1915, between 1917 and 1924 he published chronicles in **newspapers**. Then he traveled to Europe, staying until 1939. In 1927, his *La tienda de muñecos* was published in France, a book of short tales whose fantastic elements made it an exceptional case in the narrative of its time and an important work in national literary history. In 1951, he published *La tuna de oro*.

GARMENDIA, SALVADOR (Barquisimeto, 1928–Caracas, 2001). Writer. His works held a capital importance among the blooming avant-garde movement of the 1960s and together with those of Adriano González León are considered the best Venezuelan exponents of the Hispano-American boom. In 1958, he was a member of the group *Sardio* and in 1961 founded *El Techo de la Ballena*. His novels are considered the start of the urban narrative of national **literature**, with themes and characters that were also displayed in **Guillermo Meneses's** works. Among his most important novels are *Los pequeños seres* (1958) and *La mala vida* (1968), while *El inquieto Anacobero y otros relatos* (1971) is one of his best story collections.

GAZETA DE CARACAS/GACETA DE CARACAS (1808–1822). Along with *El Correo de la Trinidad Española* (1789), it is one of the first **newspapers** published in Venezuela. It was due to James Lamb and Mateo Gallagher that the first issue was released on 24 October 1808. One of its first writers was **Andrés Bello**, although it is impossible to know which articles he wrote. The names of the first directors are not known, but one of them was José Domingo Díaz. It became a powerful means of spreading political ideas during the **War of Independence**, sometimes in the loyalist direction (1812–1813, 1815–1821), sometimes for the patriot side (1810–1812, 1813–1814, 1821–1822). It was published until 1822, after the loyalist forces were defeated at the **Carabobo Battle**.

GEGO (Hamburg, Germany, 1912–Caracas, 1994). Sculptor and engraver. Her real name was Gertrud Goldschmidt. She graduated in **engineering** with a specialization in architecture. In 1939, she moved to Venezuela, fleeing the Second World War, and took Venezuelan nationality in 1952. Her first works were based on constructivism, but she soon acquired her own aesthetic. In 1969, she started the *Reticuláreas*, structures joined with wire to give their architectonic volumes a ludic, light characteristic. She is one of the renovators of Venezuelan **art** along with artists like **Jesús Soto**, **Carlos Cruz Diez**, and **Alejandro Otero**.

GENERACIÓN DEL 28 (GENERATION OF 1928). Name given to the group of leaders who emerged from the student rebellion against **Juan Vicente Gómez** in 1928. Most of them studied at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** and were about 20 years of age. Among them were politicians and intellectuals of profound influence in Venezuelan life such as future presidents like **Rómulo Betancourt** and **Raúl Leoni**, political leaders like **Juan Bautista Fuenmayor** and **Jóvito Villalba**, writers like **Miguel Otero Silva**, as well as scientists and academics like **Francisco Tamayo**, Rafael Vegas, Isaac J. Pardo, and Miguel Acosta Saignes.

GENERAL CAPTAINCY OF VENEZUELA. *See* VENEZUELA (GENERAL CAPTAINCY).

GENEVA AGREEMENT (ACUERDO DE GINEBRA). Diplomatic treaty signed on 17 February 1966 by Venezuela, the United Kingdom, and British Guiana (at the time still a colony yet to obtain independence). The instrument detailed the steps to be followed to solve the border dispute regarding the **Essequibo Territory**, arising from the Venezuelan position of considering null and void the **Paris Arbitral Award** of 1899, which defined the **boundaries** between Venezuela and British Guiana. In the Geneva Agreement the parties recognized the territorial dispute and agreed to find a practical, peaceful, and satisfactory solution. Nevertheless, differences with **Guyana** (the independent republic that followed British Guiana) have continued. *See also* FOREIGN POLICY.

GERBASI, VICENTE (Canoabo, 1913–Caracas, 1992). Poet. A member of the **Venezuelan Academy of Language** (1989), he is one of the models of modern Venezuelan poetry. He was a founding member of the Grupo Viernes, one of the first groups to renew lyric poetry around the 1930s. Throughout his life, he directed several artistic magazines, including *Revista Nacional de Cultura*. In 1945, he published his book of poems *Mi padre, el inmigrante*, a significant work in the canon of national poetry.

GIL FORTOUL, JOSÉ (Barquisimeto, 1861–Caracas, 1943). Historian, sociologist, politician, and diplomat. He was one of the most important supporters of positivist doctrine in Venezuela and authored the widely known *Historia constitucional de Venezuela*. After he wrote several novels and poems, Gil Fortoul focused on the study of sociology, especially the sociology of law. In 1890, he published *Filosofía constitucional* and in 1892 *Filosofía penal*. In 1896, he published his first important study of history, *El hombre y la historia*, a long essay in which Venezuelan history is analyzed with positivist ideas. This book was a success and served as a prelude to his *Historia constitucional de Venezuela*, published in Berlin in 1906. This text is a study of the Venezuelan constitutions between 1811 and 1863, with an analysis of their social and political context, and has been one of the more influential books on the history of Venezuela. Numerous historians have followed his ideas. Along with his intellectual activity, Gil Fortoul was also a diplomat in several European countries, a parliamentarian, a minister, and a professor at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. As senator, he prompted legal reforms in favor of **women**. In 1912, he attempted a reform of the **educational** system. Between 1913 and 1914, under the regime of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, he was appointed interim president of Venezuela. In 1936, he suffered an

assassination attempt due to his loyalty to Gómez. However, today he is considered one of the most important historians of Venezuela.

GIRARDOT, ATANASIO (San Jerónimo, Colombia, 1791–Bárbula, 1813). Independence hero. In 1810, he joined the independence struggle in his native region and in 1813 joined **Simón Bolívar** on the **Campaña Admirable**. After the liberation of **Caracas** and during the siege of Puerto Cabello, Bolívar decided to confront the forces of **Domingo Monteverde** in Bárbula. Although the patriots were victorious, Girardot died in combat wrapped in the Republican flag.

GLORIA AL BRAVO PUEBLO. *See* NATIONAL ANTHEM.

GOLD. Mineral related to the myth of **El Dorado**. The search for gold enabled exploration and reconnaissance of the territory during the conquest, finding some deposits in the northwestern part of Venezuela in the 16th and 17th centuries. Nevertheless, the first large discovery dates from 1854 in the basin of the Yuruari River in the current **Bolívar State**. In 1860, the first **mining** company appeared, Venezolana del Yuruari, and gold miners went to towns like El Callao, Guasipati, and Tumeremo. By the end of the 19th century, English and French companies had settled in the area, founding the town of El Dorado. In 1974, the state-owned company Minerven was created, and since 1990 exploration and exploitation has been run by the Ministry of Energy and Mines. However, the ministry has not been able to stop illegal mining, which has had a severe impact on the environment. Since the 1990s, foreign investments from the **United States**, Canada, and Russia have increased. In the 2000s, the regime of **Hugo Chávez** created a state-owned monopoly, yet the **Nicolás Maduro** administration reversed this and opened gold mining up to private companies again. The main gold reserves are located in Bolívar State in the areas of El Callao, Imataca, and the basins of the rivers Yuruari, Cuyuní, Botanamo, Corumo, Gurampín, Matupo, Hondo, Grande, Oronato, Carichapo, Macarumo, and Supamo. Gold production by legal mining companies has stagnated during the years as Minerven lacked the resources to develop them, standing yearly at 550 kilograms in 2015 and 2016, while illegal mining is estimated to generate around 80 to 90 percent of total production, which would represent around 5,500 kilograms, for a total gold production of 6,050 kilograms.

GÓMEZ, JUAN VICENTE (La Mulera, 1857–Maracay, 1935). Politician and military officer, the last **caudillo** of Venezuela to govern, over a period of 27 years (1908–1935), the longest personal domination in Venezuelan his-

tory. His dictatorial regime, the *gomecismo*, was characterized by important structural changes in Venezuela: the centralization of the nation-state, and the transition from a **coffee-based economy** to an **oil-export** one. Nevertheless, it was a period lacking in freedom, with strong political repression, corruption among governing elites, and deep **education** and **health** problems across the country.

Born to a family of small property owners in the **Andean Region** of **Táchira State**, since his youth he assumed the management of the possessions due to the early passing away of his father. Rapidly, he became a successful cattle rancher and the head of the family. In 1892, he entered politics, guided by **Cipriano Castro**, the godfather of one of his children, supporting Castro as a local leader facing the **Revolución Legalista**. After being defeated, he had to go into exile in Cúcuta (**Colombia**), returning seven years later as one of the top officers in the **Revolución Liberal Restauradora** (1899). After that, he began ascending in power. As leader of the government troops, he successfully defeated the **Revolución Libertadora** (1901–1903). In the siege of **Ciudad Bolívar** (1903), he defeated the last rebellious warlords, and the consensus of historiography is that he ended caudillismo and with it the cycle of civil wars. This gave Gómez immense fame. After a brief period distanced from Castro, the latter named him vice president and in 1908 left him in charge of the government when he departed to Europe for health reasons. Gómez seized the opportunity, ousted Castro, and took power until his death in 1935.

His first period of government (1910–1914) was characterized by the freeing from jail of political adversaries prosecuted by Castro, appointing them in political positions, and allowing press freedom. There were two important events in this first period: the sanction by the Congress of a new **constitution** (1909), and the creation of the Military Academy (1910), influenced by **Samuel MacGill**. Even though his presidential mandate ended in 1914, under the excuse of a possible invasion led by Castro and declaring that public order was being subverted, he suspended presidential elections. After this first government crisis, reflected in revolts against him, the Congress renewed his mandate for seven years. In this second period (1914–1922), **Victorino Márquez Bustillos** served as provisional president, in charge of administrative affairs, while Gómez, as elected president, maintained the direction of the **army**. A new constitution was enacted in 1914 as growing repression suppressed almost all opposition. The oil industry ascended in relevance with the discovery of the first commercial oil well, **Zumaque I** (1914), allowing **Román Cárdenas** to reorder the public finances of the Venezuelan state and for the building of some emblematic infrastructure works, especially the **road** plan.

The third period (1922–1929) coincided with a new constitutional reform (1922), in addition to changes experienced by the country as oil exploitation surged. This process consolidated and strengthened Gómez's regime, benefited by **oil concessions** and royalties paid by American and European oil companies. In this context, the first Hydrocarbons Law was enacted. In 1925, Gómez inaugurated the Trans-Andean Road, which connected western Venezuela with **Caracas**, an essential aspect of territorial integration. During the 1920s, opposition to Gómez continued, with revolts led by Emilio Arévalo Cedeño and Rafael Arévalo González. In addition, in 1928 a new model of political opposition surged among students, known as **Generación del 28**, the future political leaders of Venezuela, among them **Rómulo Betancourt**, **Jóvito Villalba**, and **Raúl Leoni**. In 1929, Gómez left the power to **Juan Bautista Pérez** after defeating **Román Delgado Chalbaud's Falke Invasion** and the armed movement of **Rafael Simón Urbina**. However, he kept the direction of the army. A decline in the coffee markets during the 1929 world economic crisis caused the government to lose support, so Gómez regained full power in 1931. In 1930, honoring the centenary of the passing away of **Simón Bolívar**, Venezuela paid in full its **external debt**, becoming one of the few no-debt countries at that time. During the last period of Gómez's regime (1931–1935), the Banco Agrícola and Banco Obrero were created.

GONZÁLEZ, JUAN VICENTE (Caracas, 1810–Caracas, 1866). Writer, **journalist**, politician, and professor. By 1828, he had graduated in philosophy and taught at schools and universities in subjects related to the humanities, such as history, **literature**, Greek, Latin, and grammar. This intense activity allowed him to publish his famous *Manual de historia universal*. His political activity was passionate. He was a founding member of the Liberal Society of **Caracas** (later called the **Liberal Party**) but distanced himself from **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán** and became a ferocious opponent. He wrote against his followers in the press, especially in his **newspapers** *Cicerón a Catalina* (1845–1846), *Diario de la tarde* (1846), and *La Prensa* (1846–1848). During the **Federal War**, he opposed General **José Antonio Páez**, leading and defending a civil direction. In 1861, once Páez assumed the dictatorship, González was put in prison. He was arrested several times for political reasons. At the end of his life, he dedicated most of his writing to literary subjects in the *Revista Literaria* (1865–1866). González is considered one of the most extraordinary prose writers of the 19th century, cultivating a very personal style ahead of his contemporaries. In that sense, his historical works are also among the most emblematic of Venezuelan romanticism, such as his *Biografía del general José Félix Ribas* (1865). He also was a key figure in the creation and dissemination of the cult of **Simón Bolívar** through

books like *Mis exequias a Bolívar* (1842), along with being one of the first specialists in **Andrés Bello's** work.

GONZÁLEZ GUINÁN, FRANCISCO (Valencia, 1841–Macuto, 1932). Historian, politician, **journalist**, and lawyer. His political life started during **Antonio Guzmán Blanco's** first period (1870–1877) and concluded in 1912 under **Juan Vicente Gómez's**. He served as minister, senator, and member of the Federal Council, among other positions. In 1907, he was responsible for locating the acts of the **Congress of 1811**, which included the Act of Independence, lost for a long time. Between 1891 and 1915, he published his *Historia contemporánea de Venezuela*, a 15-volume title that recounts Venezuela's political life between 1830 and 1890, nowadays an important work for the study of the 19th century.

GRAMCKO, IDA (Puerto Cabello, 1924–Caracas, 1994). Writer, **journalist**, and professor. She arrived to **Caracas** in 1939, establishing contact with the cultural elite of the time. In 1942, she published her book of poems *Umbral*, and in 1956 she published her novel *Juan Sin miedo*. In 1957, she won the **José Rafael Pocatererra** Novel Prize, and in 1977 she won the National Prize for **Literature**.

GRAN COLOMBIA. Name conventionally given to the Republic of **Colombia**, which existed between 1819 and 1831, to differentiate it from the current Colombia. It included today's republics of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, and Panama, creating a great state that ended in the north at the Mexican Empire, in south at Peru and the Brazilian Empire, and in the east at the English colonies of Demerara and Berbice. Surrounded by empires, Gran Colombia tried to keep a political balance in the region. It was enacted by the **Angostura Congress** on 17 December 1819 with the Ley Fundamental de Unión de los Pueblos de Colombia, by which the integration of Venezuela and Nueva Granada was established. Although it was driven primarily by **Simón Bolívar**, from 1810 the independent governments had sought integration formulas. In 1813, when Bolívar recovered **Caracas** in front of an army of the United Provinces of Nueva Granada, he already sought to promote a common congress. In 1824, Gran Colombia sent an army to liberate Peru, and in 1826 it promoted and hosted the Congress of Panamá. In 1826, *grancolombians* troops also helped found Bolivia. However, internal differences became impossible to control once the war ended. In 1826, a secessionist rebellion broke out in Caracas, known as **La Cosiata**. In 1828, it went to war with Peru over territorial issues. In 1830, Bolívar resigned as president, and Venezuela became an independent state, soon followed by the separation of Ecuador.

Trying to maintain the union, **Rafael Urdaneta** settled a coup in September 1830. The death of Bolívar, who had approved the project, made it unfeasible, so Urdaneta resigned in the so-called Apulo Agreement on 3 May 1831. The Congress of Nueva Granada formally abolished the republic on 21 November 1831. In 1863, it retook the name of Colombia, holding it until today.

GRAN SABANA. Natural region located in the south of **Bolívar State**, stretching east from the Caroní River to the limits of the **Essequibo Territory**. It has an extent of 18,000 square kilometers and contains the highest elevations in the state. This territory is part of the **Guayana** shield, formed in the Pre-Cambrian era, which provides a distinctive endowment, represented by the geological formations called **tepuy**. Gran Sabana has an enormous natural wealth, with resources like **gold**, diamonds, titanium, and bauxite. The Caroní River and waterfalls enable hydroelectric energy generation (among them, the **Guri Dam**). Along with the Caroní, some of the rivers in the zone are the Cuyuní, Yuruaní, Aponwao, Kukenan, and Suruku. Some of the peaks are the Sierra Leona, Tepuy Roraima, and Eruoda. Green forest is the predominant vegetation of the zone. The Indian tribes that live in the Gran Sabana belong to the **Timoto-Cuicas** family (Arekunas, Taurepanes, and Kamarakotos). The Canaima National Park is located in the area. Today this territory is one of the major tourist attractions of the country, and the government lets the **original tribes** manage this activity as a source of income.

GRAN VENEZUELA. Name given by President **Carlos Andrés Pérez** to the period starting in 1976 with **oil nationalization** and that in the next 25 years, according to his plans, would lead Venezuela to great development. However, the name is commonly associated with the era of the great **oil** bonanza of the 1970s.

GUACHARO CAVE. Located in the north of **Monagas State**, close to the town of Caripe, the Guacharo Cave has 10,650 meters of known passages. The name comes from a bird called the *guacharo* that inhabits the cavern. It is divided into two sections. The first tourist section contains the Humboldt, Silencio, and Precioso galleries. The second is called Cuarto del Viento (Wind Room), and it was used for Chaimas **aboriginal** rituals. Capuchin and Franciscan monks made the first descriptions of the cave. In 1794, **Francisco Ibarra**, bishop of Guayana, entered it. **Alexander von Humboldt** explored it in 1799. In 1975, it was declared a natural monument and national park, for conservation and protection of the landscape, fauna, and flora and for education purposes.

GUAICAIPURO (?–Suroapo, 1568). Leader of the alliance of **aboriginal peoples** that opposed the conquest of the **Caracas** region. Although he had been considered *cacique* (chief) of his native group (the Teques), and even is known as Cacique Guaicaipuro (Chief Guaicaipuro), he was actually a *guatopori*, like a commandant. In 1561, Guaicaipuro attacked and burned the Hato San Francisco, where Caracas presently sits. He also killed its founder, the conquistador **Juan Rodríguez Suárez**. Thereafter, he prompted a general rebellion involving all tribal groups of the region. In consequence, the conquistador **Diego de Losada** was sent to pacify the region in 1567. Losada managed to defeat the natives in the Battle of Maracapana and founded the city of Caracas. Then, he commissioned Mayor Francisco Infante to capture Guaicaipuro, and he along with 80 troops assaulted Suroapo, the village of Guaicaipuro (currently close to Paracotos), in the night. Although he had discovered the operation, Guaicaipuro was killed when his *bohio* (native house) was burned and he had to go out. According to legend, he was wielding the sword of Rodríguez Suárez when he was shot. Today Guaicaipuro is considered a national hero. Even in Venezuelan popular religiosity, his soul is venerated.

GUAJIRA PENINSULA. Located at the northern limit of South America, it has an area of 15,497 square kilometers, divided between two countries: Venezuela (3,257 square kilometers) and **Colombia** (12,240 square kilometers). It has a semidesert climate. Its landscape contains lagoons created by sediments, like Sinamaica, and small coast elevations, dunes, and sandy grounds. It also has little rivers like El Limón and El Ranchería. Due to the discovery of **pearls**, it was one of the first locations of Spanish settlement. In 1499, the governorship of Coquivacoa was created under the direction of **Alonso de Ojeda**. In 1528, most of the peninsula was placed under the **Welsers'** governorship, the western limit of which was Cabo de la Vela. This limit was maintained when the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** was created in 1777. Nevertheless, there were always problems of limits with the governorship of Santa Marta. In 1789, the province of Riohacha was created, with the territory of the peninsula within the limits of Nueva Granada. In 1782, the king transferred Sinamaica to Venezuela. Some sources consider this to have included the whole peninsula, others that it only reached Cabo de la Vela. During **Gran Colombia**, the entire peninsula appears as part of the department of **Zulia**. Once this republic was dissolved, the new governments of Venezuela and Nueva Granada reached an agreement, the Pombo-Michelena Treaty (1833), which divided Guajira into two similar parts. The treaty not being ratified by the Venezuelan Congress, disputes continued until

the Laudo Arbitral of 1891, favorable to Colombia, which placed the limit in Castilletes. The conflict was maintained until 1941, when the Tratado de los Limites Nacionales y Navegacion de los Rios Comunes was signed, in which Venezuela accepted these **boundaries**. Nevertheless, discussions continue about the **Gulf of Venezuela** and **Los Monjes Islands**. Between 1864 and 1893, the Venezuelan part of the peninsula was put under the jurisdiction of Territorio Federal Goajira (*Goajira* is an archaic form of the name of the peninsula). One of the main reasons for the imprecision of the border is the depopulation of the peninsula and the resistance of the **Wayúu people** during the colonial period. It was not until the late 17th century that the Wayúu began to be integrated into colonial control. Currently, the main **economic** activity is commercial trade between the two countries. However, the region is one of the more dangerous in Venezuela. Interest in carbon, copper, and siliceous sand has attracted smuggling and guerrillas. The **aboriginal** tribe in the territory also remains ferocious.

GUAL, MANUEL. *See* GUAL AND ESPAÑA CONSPIRACY.

GUAL AND ESPAÑA CONSPIRACY (1797). First Venezuelan independence revolutionary movement. It was organized in La Guaira and **Caracas** in 1797. Its leaders were retired militia captain Manuel Gual (1759–1800) and **José María España** (1761–1799). The movement was influenced by a group of Spaniards who were imprisoned in the fortresses of La Guaira for participating in the so-called Conspiracy of San Blas (1796), an attempt to overthrow King Carlos IV to establish a revolutionary republic in Spain. Its leader was Juan Bautista Picornell (1759–1825), who quickly came into contact from his prison with many people from the local enlightened circles. The movement pursued the establishment of a republic with a radical program, known as Ordenanzas de Gual y España (Gual and España's Ordinances), that included free trade, racial equality, and the abolition of **slavery**. The conspiracy reached a great network of committed members, which facilitated its discovery in July 1797. Gual, España, and Picornell escaped abroad with the aim of further scheming. Two years later España returned secretly to Venezuela to reinforce the movement, but he was captured and executed. In 1800, Gual died in **Trinidad** in circumstances that were never clarified. It is suspected that Spanish agents poisoned him. At that time, he had become close with **Francisco de Miranda**. Picornell, after living in the West Indian islands, settled in the **United States**. Since Venezuela declared independence in 1811, Gual and España have been considered heroes. The flag they designed was the first for Venezuela, and it is currently the one used by **Vargas State**.

GUÁRICO (STATE). One of the states of Venezuela. The capital is San Juan de los Morros. It has an area of 64,986 square kilometers (7 percent of the country) and a **population** of 747,739 (2011 census, 2.58 percent of the country). Guárico has 15 municipalities and 35 parishes. Economically, the state has fertile soil that allows the raising of crops (corn, rice, and sorghum) and cattle, a fishery industry, rivers (Unare, Tiznado, Guárico, Aragua-Guariquito, Manapire, Aracay, and Zuata), and **oil**, gas, and mineral resources, as well as tourist attractions. The state is part of the plains region (*llanos*). Before the conquest, the territory was inhabited by different **aboriginal tribes**, such as the Guamonteyes, Mapayes, Tamanacos, and **Caribbean people**. By 2002, they represented 0.6 percent of the aboriginal population in the country. It was part of the **province of Caracas** (in fact, the region was called Llanos de Caracas) until 1848, when the Guárico Province was created. It became a state with the federal Constitution of 1864.

GUAYANA (PROVINCE). Political-territorial unit existing between 1768 and 1821, and between 1830 and 1864, formed by what is now known as the **Guayana Region**. Its origin lies in a royal charter of 1585 granted to **Antonio de Berrío** with the right to conquer **El Dorado**, supposedly located in the region of the **Orinoco River**. In 1766, as part of the Viceroyalty of New Granada, it was placed under the authority of the governor of the **province of Venezuela**. From 1777, the region became part of the **General Captaincy of Venezuela**. During the beginning of the **War of Independence**, it remained loyal to Spain, until it was conquered by patriot troops in 1818. In its capital, **Angostura**, the **Gran Colombia** union was proclaimed in 1819, forming later part of the department of the Orinoco, along with all the east of Venezuela. In 1830, once Venezuela separated from the union, the area was known again as the province of Guayana. In 1864, with the triumph of the federation, it was renamed Guayana State.

GUAYANA (REGION). Created in 1969, it is one of the political-administrative divisions of the country, grouping **Bolívar**, **Amazonas**, and **Delta Amacuro States**. This region has the administration of the similarly named historic region formed by the territory of the old **province of Guayana**. It represents 54 percent of the country but has less than 6 percent of the **population**. The Guayana Region is economically attractive due to extraction and the demand for mineral resources like **gold**, diamonds, bauxite, and **iron**, and for its hydroelectric and tourism potential. The region is located on Guayana's geological shield, divided into four different geological characteristics: Imataca, Pastora, Cuchivero, and Roraima. In 1960, the **Corporación**

Venezolana de Guayana (CVG) was founded to manage the development of the area. Ten year later, CVG Minerven was created for the regulation and management of the minerals in the region.

GUAYANA ESEQUIBA. *See* ESSEQUIBO TERRITORY.

GUERRA A MUERTE (WAR TO DEATH). Name given to the strategy of war practiced in Venezuela between 1813 and 1821. According to this model of war, the lives of the enemies, except in exceptional cases, should not be respected. Although it has its antecedents in the martial law enacted by the republic in 1812 and in the crackdown of **Domingo Monteverde** when he defeated republican order that year, the formal beginning came in the Proclamation of War to Death made by **Simón Bolívar** in **Trujillo** on 15 June 1813. Erroneously known as the “Decree of War to the Death” (Bolívar then had no power to create decrees), it condemned to death all Spaniards who did not join the cause of independence. However, it was also applied by the royalists during the popular and antirepublican rebellion of **José Tomás Boves** as the basis of mass killings, especially of white people, in 1814. By the Martial Law of 11 December 1817, the War to Death was extended to all Venezuelans who did not join the patriot army. War to the death was suppressed by the **Trujillo Agreements** of 1820, signed between **Gran Colombia** and the Kingdom of Spain, which regularized the conflict.

GUERRILLA INSURRECTION. *See* **LUCHA ARMADA**.

GUEVARA Y LIRA, SILVESTRE (Cantaura, 1814–El Valle, 1882). Fifth archbishop of **Caracas**, designated in 1852. In 1870, he attended the First Vatican Council in Rome. Back in Venezuela later that year, he confronted the new government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** on its secularization policies. He was expelled from the country, triggering a crisis that almost concluded with the establishing of a separate Venezuelan church. The situation lasted until he resigned as archbishop in 1876. *See also* CATHOLIC CHURCH.

GULF OF VENEZUELA. Maritime area located to the north of the country, with an area of 18,500 square kilometers. The gulf connects with **Maracaibo Lake (Zulia State)** through a narrow channel, creating an entrance into Venezuelan territory. It is critical for the commercial trade, maritime circulation, defense, and security of Venezuela. In 1499, it was first navigated by **Alonso de Ojeda**, **Amerigo Vespucci**, and **Juan de la Cosa**. The latter drew a sketch of the gulf territory. A year later, the name Venezuela was given by

Vespucci because the huts on poles above the lake (*palafitos*) reminded him of Venice. Venezuela claims total possession of the gulf, considering it part of its historic waters, but **Colombia** claims the part that projects out from its part of the **Guajira Peninsula**. This disagreement constitutes a source of limited conflict even now. The Gulf of Venezuela not only has symbolic and cultural relevance for Venezuelans, since the name of the country was coined there, but also has a large economic significance, as its waters are key for international trade and it holds large deposits of **oil** and gas.

GUMILLA, JOSEPH (Valencia, Spain, 1686–Los Llanos, 1750). Jesuit missionary, writer, and explorer. Father Gumilla was a diligent investigator of the natural **sciences** who dedicated his life to the study of indigenous **medicine** and geography, economics, and the languages of the **aboriginal** inhabitants of the **Orinoco River** basin. He founded several towns along the rivers Apure, Meta, and Orinoco. He wrote, in addition to other works, a fundamental book of enormous historical value: *El Orinoco ilustrado y defendido: Historia natural, civil y geográfica de este gran río y de sus caudalosas vertientes* (The Orinoco Illustrated and Defended: Natural, Civil, and Geographical History of This Great River and Its Vast Watersheds), first published in Madrid in 1741. His notes on the natural history of the Orinoco served for a long time as a necessary reference for all scientists interested in the nature of the intertropical zone, including **Alexander von Humboldt** and many other travelers of the 19th century. Since 1968, the Jesuits' research and social action center in Venezuela has been known as Fundación Centro Gumilla, honoring his memory.

GURI DAM. It is the nation's largest hydroelectric power plant, located in **Bolívar State**, upstream of the mouth of the Caroní River. The origin of this monumental **engineering** work dates back to 1947, although its construction started in 1963 during the government of **Rómulo Betancourt**. It was begun in 1968 and finally completed in 1976. Its official name was **Raúl Leoni** Hydroelectric Power Plant, but in 2006 an executive order of **Hugo Chávez's** administration changed it to **Simón Bolívar** Hydroelectric Power Plant. With a capacity of 10,000 megawatts, it is the most important energy generator in Venezuela, providing power to about 17 cities around the country.

GUTIÉRREZ, PEDRO ELÍAS (La Guaira, 1870–Macuto, 1954). Musician and composer, he is famous for having written the music for the **joropo** "**Alma llanera**" (1914), with lyrics by **Rafael Bolívar Coronado**. It is part of the *zarzuela* of the same name and is considered the second anthem of Venezuela. In 1889, at the age of 19, Gutiérrez released his first work,

“Sinfonía,” at the Municipal Theater, with the attendance of President **Juan Pablo Rojas Paúl**, who awarded him a scholarship to study in Europe. The opposition of his family stopped him from taking the grant, but he continued with his musical studies at the Academy of **Music** of the National Institute of **Fine Arts**. He became a virtuoso on the contrabass.

GUYANA, RELATIONS WITH. Venezuela’s relationship with Guyana is marked by its **boundary** problems. In 1825, with the British occupation of the colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, the border between **Gran Colombia** and British Guiana on the Essequibo River was recognized. As a consequence of British expansionist policy during the rest of the 19th century, the Venezuelan government submitted the border dispute to an arbitration decision. In October 1899, the **Paris Arbitral Decision** was issued and was unfavorable to Venezuela, which lost 159,000 square kilometers in the **Essequibo Territory**. Current documentation makes it possible to verify that this arbitration award was due to an agreement between the judges, who served their interests without considering the titles exhibited by the parties. The arbitral decision is flawed, both in form and in substance. In 1962, during the government of **Rómulo Betancourt**, the claim was elevated to the **United Nations**. In February 1966, the **Geneva Agreement** was signed between Venezuela, Great Britain, and British Guiana, in which it was agreed they would seek a practical solution to the territorial issue. Shortly after, in May of that year, Guyana declared itself an independent state, and Venezuela recognized its new status but maintained its rights over the claimed territory. In the same way, Venezuela acknowledged Guyana’s entry into the United Nations. In January 1969, a rebellion in the Rupununi region of Guayana Esequiba took place in which the Guyanese government accused Venezuela of encouraging the separatist movement. Between 70 and 100 people died, and some of the inhabitants of the region fled to Venezuela into southern **Bolívar State**. At least 120 refugees were granted Venezuelan nationality. In 1970, after the failure of bilateral negotiations established by the Geneva Agreement, the **Port of Spain Protocol** was signed, freezing negotiation for 12 years. In 1983, the border dispute was presented to the secretary-general of the United Nations, and in 1987 Guyana and Venezuela decided to accept the “good offices” method, which began operating in 1989. From 1999, with the arrival of **Hugo Chávez** to office, there was a change in the way the claim was pursued. Ideological affinity overcame the appropriateness of the claim. Guyana was included in **Petrocaribe** and benefited from **oil** offered at low prices by Venezuela to its partners. However, in 2011 Guyana, seeking oil exploitation, made modifications to its maritime continental shelf, affecting the territorial sea of Venezuela. In June 2012, Guyana handed over the Roraima

oil bloc, paralyzed by a protest from Venezuela in 1999, to the transnational Anadarko. The location affected not only the Atlantic frontier of Guayana Esequiba but also **Delta Amacuro State** in Venezuela. By March 2015, tensions returned, followed by the announcement by Guyana of oil exploration in the waters of the Stabroek block by the U.S. company ExxonMobil. This has led to another controversy over Venezuelan maritime space and the questionable extension of the Guyanese continental shelf. In 2017, the UN appointed an envoy to mediate in the border dispute between the countries.

GUZMÁN, ANTONIO LEOCADIO (Caracas, 1801–Caracas, 1884). Politician, founder of the **Liberal Party** in 1840, and father of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. The son of a Spanish military officer, he studied in Spain, where he witnessed the Liberal Revolution of 1820. Although his father emigrated from Venezuela after the patriot victory in the **War of Independence**, he decided to stay in Caracas. Quickly, he began a career as a political **journalist**, being a supporter of the liberal opposition to the union of **Gran Colombia**. In 1825 he was sent to Peru by **José Antonio Páez**, then the military chief of Venezuela, to convince **Simón Bolívar** to become king. Bolívar refused, but instead he incorporated Guzmán as his secretary and sent him back to Caracas with the mission of disseminating a draft **constitution** that had been developed for Bolivia and was considered suitable for Gran Colombia. Guzmán then wrote the *Ojeada al proyecto de Constitución que el Libertador ha presentado a la República de Bolívar* (Glimpse of the Draft Constitution Presented by the Liberator to the Bolívar Republic) in 1826. However, back in Venezuela, he knew the country was rebelling against the *grancolombian* union in the movement **La Cusiata**. He joined the movement and thereafter was for many years a collaborator of Páez. Due to disagreements with Ángel Quintero, Páez's close ally, he separated from the government, founding in 1840 the opposition **Liberal Party**. From the newspaper *El Venezolano*, he undertook an intense political campaign against the group that had held power since the 1820s, which he called an "oligarchy" (known since then as the **Conservative Oligarchy**). Later, when the fall of **coffee** prices plunged the country into a major crisis, he advocated state regulations to support the **economy** and help ruined farmers. This generated for him great popular prestige. In the 1846 elections, Guzmán was the favorite, but a popular rebellion served as an excuse to have him imprisoned and taken out of the race. He was sentenced to death, but the new president, **José Tadeo Monagas**, commuted this to exile. However, soon Monagas broke with Páez and pardoned Guzmán. After the events of **January 24, 1848**, the Liberal Party was invited to join the government, starting the stage known as the **Liberal Oligarchy**. Although he became vice president and held diplomatic

responsibilities during those governments, he would not become president. With the overthrow of Monagas in 1858, he was expelled from the country. He moved to Nueva Granada, where he supported President Tomás Cipriano Mosquera. He was elected deputy and became one of the signers of the Constitution of Río Negro. He also advocated for the reunification of Venezuela with **Colombia**. However, the triumph of the Liberal Party in the **Federal War** (1859–1863) marked the rise of a new generation, in which his son Antonio Guzmán Blanco was prominent. For the next 20 years, he occupied various political and diplomatic positions but was always overshadowed by the figure of his son.

GUZMÁN BLANCO, ANTONIO (Caracas, 1829–Paris, France, 1899). Politician, diplomat, and military officer. He was president of Venezuela in three periods: the **Septenio** (1870–1877), the **Quinquenio** (1879–1884), and the **Bienio** (1886–1888). Appointed by the Congress as the “ilustre Americano y Regenerador de Venezuela” (Illustrious American and Regenerator of Venezuela), his administration was characterized by the establishment of modern policies such as laws for the administration of the state, improvement in **education**, and promotion of foreign investment and public works. However, his government was also marked by a very personalist and dictatorial form of management, which is why historiography has called him the “civilizing autocrat.” His influence lasted all of the **Liberalismo Amarillo** period.

Son of the politician and founder of the **Liberal Party** Antonio Leocadio Guzmán and Carlota Blanco Jerez de Aristiguieta, he married Ana Teresa Ibarra, daughter of Andrés Ibarra, a general of the **War of Independence**. Guzmán Blanco acquired military training during the **Federal War** (1859–1863). After the federal victory, he occupied various political positions in the government of **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**. However, when the regime of Falcón ended in June 1868, he went abroad. Among other Liberal leaders, he led the opposition to the Azul government, organizing an invasion of Venezuela. He burst into **Caracas** in April 1870, directing the **Revolución de Abril** and ascending to the presidency for the first time.

In the exercise of his three administrations, Guzmán introduced policies to improve Venezuelan organization. In 1870, he promoted the decree of public, free, and compulsory education, and in 1872 he encouraged the modernization of the **law system**. The secularization of the state reached new levels in 1873 when civil marriage was established. Guzmán helped to construct the national symbols, inaugurating Bolívar Square in Caracas in 1874 and designating the **national anthem** in 1881. Public works, such as the construction of the Federal Palace in 1872 and the Caracas–La Guaira **railroad** in 1883, were also part of his legacy. He also promoted immigration and European investment and the administrative reorganization of the territory.

The *guzmancista* system was based on a broad alliance of local **caudillos**, who helped control the interior regions and ensured relative stability. Similarly, he allied with the rising bourgeoisie, which guaranteed resources through a wide network of business, not excluding corruption. Finally, he sought partnership with foreign investors, to whom were given the rights to exploit many of Venezuela's main resources, such as river navigation, port procedures, and **mining**. These alliances allowed for almost two decades without civil wars and with economic growth, but also included reproachable compromises to consolidate Guzmán's support and enrich personal coffers. The **Constitution** of 1874 established a central power that on paper was relatively weak against the autonomous federal states, but in reality it meant profound de facto centralism. This dynamic was also reflected in the Constitution of 1881, which reduced the number of federal states and their autonomous powers. Over the years, his political influence lost strength, and for that reason Guzmán Blanco retired to Paris before ending his last presidential term (1886–1888). From Europe, he was responsible for successful diplomatic negotiations undertaken with British authorities regarding the territorial dispute in the **Essequibo Territory**. However, because of his feud with President **Juan Pablo Rojas Paúl**, he resigned his diplomatic function and spent his last years of life in France.

H

HAHN, REYNALDO (Caracas, 1874–Paris, France, 1947). Musician and **music** critic. In 1879, he settled definitively in Paris, and in 1884 he began to study music at the Paris Conservatory. From 1909, he began his music critic career in **newspapers** like the *Journal de l'Université des Annales* and *Le Figaro*. Influenced by the romantic movement, he linked Charles Gounod to more recent composers. Some of his works are *Chanson grises* (1891–1892), *La Carmelita* (1902), and *Ah, Chloris!* (1916).

HALLACA. Stuffed tamale, emblematic of Venezuelan gastronomy, a typical dish of the Christmas season. Although there are many regional variations, its basic composition includes a corn masa colored with annatto (*Bixa orellana*), which gives it a distinctive yellow tone; the mass is filled with a stew of beef and pork, plus chicken, raisins, capers, and olives, all wrapped in banana leaves for cooking. Beyond these fundamental ingredients, many variations exist with other ingredients and methods of preparation and cooking. It is considered a symbol of miscegenation for its combination of local ingredients with others typical of Spain. With variations, it is also consumed on the Caribbean coast of **Colombia**, some Caribbean islands, and the Canary Islands.

HEALTH. Health care as a science in Venezuela has its precedents in the ancient practices of the **aborigines**. With the landing of Europeans, the first men with Western medical knowledge arrived. These had to fight **epidemics** to which the aboriginal population was resistant, which caused many casualties in the first groups of conquerors. In addition, the aboriginal population was affected by European diseases like smallpox, which caused many human losses. Diego Montes de Oca and Hernán Pérez de la Muela, among others, were some of the first people with medical knowledge in Venezuelan territory. During the 16th century, the first improvised hospitals were established in **Cubagua**, **Barquisimeto**, and **Coro**. During the 17th and 18th centuries, at least 100 doctors arrived, mostly from Spain. With gradual changes in the functions of colonial administration and the opening of certain spaces to the creole, the American Spanish were able to exercise medicine, with the *cabildo* as the controlling institution. As well, medicine in Venezuela was

marked by other particular features, like a variety of practitioners, including *comadronas*, nurses, healers, and surgeons. The emblematic institution was the Real y Pontificia Universidad de Caracas, while the administration of hospitals was mostly in the hands of **religious** orders. With the establishment in 1763 of the Cathedra Prima de Medicina and in 1777 the Protomedicato, in which the important figure was Lorenzo Campins y Ballester, the exercise of medicine acquired a more scientific nature. The Protomedicato evaluated the knowledge of those who practiced medicine empirically, and if individuals passed its exams, they were granted a license. In addition, by the end of the 18th century, the Medicatura de Caracas was founded, later becoming the Junta Central de Vacunación (1804). The arrival of the smallpox vaccine was quite critical in the history of medicine, as that disease had decimated the population.

The end of colonial medicine can be found in 1827, when the Real y Pontificia Universidad de Caracas transitioned into the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)** and the Protomedicato was replaced by the Faculty of Medicine. In this period, military hospitals were of great importance during the **War of Independence**, in which foreign medicine positively influenced local medical knowledge. In addition, a name that is critical to understanding medical advances in Venezuela in the 19th century is **José María Vargas**. His labor not only included changes to medical training at the UCV but also the emphasis given to new subjects and specializations like anatomy and surgery, giving more prestige to Venezuelan medical practice. Throughout the century, and despite economic and political instability, medicine increased its field of action to the inner part of the country, through teaching, promoting medical societies, introducing anesthetics and new methods of surgery, secularizing medicine, founding the Colegio de Médicos, and spreading publications like *La Clínica de los Niños Pobres* in 1889.

By the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th, **Luis Razetti** was having an enormous influence on the scientific development of the discipline. Another important medical figure was **José Gregorio Hernández**, who in addition to pioneering microbiology garnered a large following of devotees attributing all sorts of miracles to him. During this period, a number of institutions were created. In 1902, the laboratory of Hospital Vargas started parasitological studies in Venezuela, an area in which Rafael Rangel was notable. In 1904, the Academia Nacional de Medicina was founded, and in 1911 the Instituto Anatómico. The Hospital Vargas has been fundamental to advancing medicine in the country, exploring many specialties and preparing many doctors. With the start of **oil** exploitation, fighting tropical diseases became critical. In 1916, the **Rockefeller** Foundation started its program to study malaria in Venezuela and in 1928 started giving scholarships to Venezuelan

doctors to be trained as sanitary officers in the **United States**. The creation of the Ministerio de Sanidad y Asistencia Social (1936) was another sign of progress in medicine, along with the establishment in Caracas of Concepción Palacios Maternity Hospital (1938) and the Seguro Social (1944). The democratic **Constitution** of 1947 declared a national health system directed by the state. At the same time, oil companies created a large network of hospitals in their oil fields. This led to further development of the discipline, as did the increase in sanitary indicators beginning in the 1940s. In 1936, life expectancy was 38 years, and the child mortality rate was 200 for every 1,000 born. By 1980, life expectancy was 68 years and the mortality rate was 20 per 1,000 children born. In addition, the number of doctors per inhabitants increased substantially, passing from 1,718 people per doctor in 1958 to 490 in 1998. Likewise, diseases like malaria were defeated with preventative policies. State support, funded mostly through oil rents, allowed the opening of a large network of hospitals and other health centers, along with medical faculties at public universities, which grew from three in 1958 to 13 in 1998 and provided scholarships to study abroad. At the same time, several research centers and postgraduate fields of study at hospitals were created, such as the Instituto de Medicina Tropical of the UCV (1946), the Instituto Venezolano de Neurología e Investigaciones Cerebrales (currently the **Instituto Venezolano de Investigación Científicas**) (1954), and the Instituto de Biomedicina (1971). In the case of hospitals, the inauguration in 1954 of the Hospital Clínico Universitario de Caracas, part of the UCV, was a high point. In parallel, private investment created many high-level health centers across the country, some of which also have courses to prepare doctors.

With the crisis of the 1980s, this process started to slow down, and in the 2000s it began to go backward, as evidenced by the reappearance of malaria. Due to the deep devaluation of the local currency and the severe economic crisis left by **Hugo Chávez**'s regime, the situation in public hospitals has become more difficult, including a lack of material and medicine and substantial shortfalls in salaries and scholarships. In the face of these difficulties, and as a help for the **Cuban** regime, the government brought in Cuban doctors, privileging their services above those of Venezuelan doctors. In this way, the Chávez government created an apparent paradox: The country faced a huge loss of human capital with the emigration of almost 13,000 doctors (2013 estimate). The high quality of their education, mostly funded by the Venezuelan state, has opened doors to them in other countries. This has had a significant impact on public and private medical centers. On the other hand, the leftist government reported that the number of doctors tripled between 1998, when they arrived to power, and 2008, reaching 60 for every 10,000 people. This was partly due to the Programa de Formación de Medicina Integral Comu-

nitaria, started in 2005, which trains community doctors and focuses on preventative medicine. According to the National Academy of Medicine, this education is not adjusted to international standards, but given the migration of doctors formed in the conventional university system, those trained in the new program have been incorporated into postgraduate studies and hospitals to prepare them in other areas. *See also* SCIENCE.

HEREDIA, JOSÉ FRANCISCO (Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, 1766–Mexico City, Mexico, 1820). Lawyer and judge. Between 1812 and 1817, he practiced as judge-dean and acting regent of the Royal Hearing of **Caracas**. In 1794, he received the title of doctor of **law** from the Royal and Pontifical University of Santo Domingo, in 1795 he became a lawyer at the Royal Hearing of Santo Domingo, and in 1798 he graduated from the Royal and Supreme Council of Castilla. In 1809, he was appointed judge of the Royal Hearing of Caracas, a position that was put on hold by the events of **April 19, 1810**. Although Spanish authorities had been deposed, he sailed and went to **Coro** with instructions to mediate with the **Caracas Supreme Junta**. The effort failed due to the refusal of the patriots and of **Fernando Miyares** himself, governor and general captain of Venezuela, to accept Heredia's mission. In 1812, after the fall of the **First Republic**, he moved back to Venezuela, where the Royal Court was reinstated in the city of **Valencia**. In October 1813, his activities were suspended due to the advance of **Bolívar** on the **Campaña Admirable**. In October 1814, he resumed work in Puerto Cabello, stopping again in May 1815 and restarting in May 1816. During the years he practiced as a judge, he permanently fought to uphold his authority and apply justice to the defeated supporters of independence in accordance with the dictates of the law. He opposed the imprisonment and summary execution of royalist authorities. In 1817, he was named mayor of crime at the Royal Hearing of Mexico, a position he held until his death. He recorded his experiences in *Memorias sobre las revoluciones de Venezuela*, published in 1895.

HERNÁNDEZ, ALEJANDRO (Juan Griego, 1907–Caracas, 1975). **Businessman.** He was jailed during **Juan Vicente Gómez** dictatorship with the students of **Generación del 28**. In 1940, he founded Pampero, a conglomerated of rum and consumer goods manufacturers. In 1944, he was a founding member of **FEDECÁMARAS** and in 1958 of the Pro-Venezuela Association. In 1968, he ran for president and in 1970 was designated governor of **Nueva Esparta State**. He was an important supporter of social responsibility toward his workers and the community.

HERNÁNDEZ, JOSÉ GREGORIO (Isnotú, 1864–Caracas, 1919). Physician, **scientist**, teacher, and philanthropist. He was the subject of broad popular veneration in Venezuela, Colombia, and other countries of Latin America and the Canary Islands. He graduated from the medical school of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)** and won a scholarship to study in Paris. Upon his return, in 1891, he founded the first chair of bacteriology in the country at the UCV. In 1904, he was a founding member of the Academy of Medicine. He published *Elementos de Bacteriología*, *Sobre la angina de pecho*, and a manual for secondary education, *Elementos de la Filosofía*. However, along with his scientific vocation, he also lived for religion. To pursue a priestly career, in 1908 he stayed for 10 months in the Charterhouse of Lucca (Italy), the rules of which he could not stand, and in 1913 he entered the Latin American Pío College in Rome, although he had to leave it due to poor **health**. Back in Venezuela, he devoted himself to teaching medicine and to philanthropy. He was known as the “doctor of the poor people” because he used to treat them free of charge. On 29 June 1919, he died, hit by a car in Caracas after getting off a streetcar. His tragic death, his reputation as a philanthropist, and his religiosity quickly led people to venerate him, especially to ask for solutions to health problems. In 1949, the Vatican opened the canonization process and in 1985 declared him venerable, which is two categories below saint. However, the problem of his veneration in popular religion outside the norms of the **Catholic Church** and in combination with other spiritualist cults has stopped his ascent to sainthood.

HERNÁNDEZ, JOSÉ MANUEL “EL MOCHO” (Caracas, 1853–New York, United States, 1921). Politician and **caudillo** of great popularity. In 1892, he joined **Joaquín Crespo** in urging the **Revolution Legalista** in **Guayana**, occupying **Ciudad Bolívar** and becoming the civil and military chief of the region. In 1896, during a stay in the **United States**, he observed the presidential campaign of William McKinley and William Jennings Bryan, acquiring knowledge on the dynamics of voting and modern campaign strategies. As a candidate in the election of 1898, he implemented such procedures, the first to do so in Venezuela. After the electoral fraud of **Ignacio Andrade**, he took up arms in the Revolution of Queipa and fought against his former ally Crespo. Also rising in arms against **Cipriano Castro**, he joined his voice to the **Venezuelan Crisis of 1902**, entering exile soon after, just as he did under **Juan Vicente Gómez**.

HÉROES DEL 41. See BASEBALL.

HERRERA, CAROLINA (Caracas, 1939). Fashion designer and socialite. Born to a well-known, high-class Venezuelan family and married to Reinaldo Herrera-Uslar, Marquis of Torre-Casa, landowner, **television** presenter, and coeditor of *Vanity Fair*, she started working as a designer in **Caracas** and in 1980 moved to New York. She quickly achieved success dressing people from the royalty, high society, and show business. Her name became a global brand in haute couture: “Carolina Herrera New York.” She also established a line of perfumes under the brand name CH Carolina Herrera.

HERRERA CAMPÍNS, LUÍS (Acarigua, 1925–Caracas, 2007). Lawyer, **journalist**, and politician, president between 1979 and 1984. He began his political activism at the Unión Nacional Estudiantil and in 1946 joined the political party **COPEI**. In 1948, he was elected a deputy to the Legislative Assembly of **Portuguesa State** and in 1952 was imprisoned for participating in the university strike against the dictatorship of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. He went into exile in Madrid, where he finished **law** studies. He returned to Venezuela in 1958 and quickly became one of the most important leaders of his party. Between 1959 and 1974, he was a deputy in the National Congress while also writing for various newspapers in **Caracas** and other regions of the country. In 1978, he was elected president. During his tenure, the collapse of the Venezuelan **economy** occurred after a long period of growth. By 1982, a sustained increase in public spending and major public **external debt** contracted with foreign financial institutions was combined with low tax revenues resulting from the collapse of **oil** prices. These circumstance drove him to implement a series of economic measures aimed at cutting public spending and covering the fiscal gap, including an increase in the price of gasoline. The results were not satisfactory, and on 18 February 1983, the government announced the devaluation of the **bolívar** and the establishment of exchange controls, creating the Oficina de Cambios Diferenciales (RECADI). This event is known as **Viernes Negro** (Black Friday) and marks the beginning of the decline of the Venezuelan economy.

In 1983, to mark the 200th anniversary of the birth of **Simón Bolívar**, a summit of presidents and heads of state of the Bolivarian countries and Spain was held in Caracas. As part of the festivities, the 1983 Pan American Games were held in Caracas. The **Teresa Carreño** Cultural Complex was also opened, along with the first section of the Caracas subway. During Herrera’s presidency, a reform of the civil code was also enacted. The change finally established the legal equality of **women** in marriage and eliminated discrimination against children born outside a legal union. In late 1982, in the town of Cantaura, **Anzoátegui State**, there was a clash between military forces and a guerrilla group, which resulted in a high number of deaths.

After leaving the presidency, Herrera remained active in Venezuelan and international politics. In 1986, he was secretary of the Christian Democratic International and in 1995 was elected president of COPEI.

HERRERA TORO, ANTONIO (Valencia, 1857–Caracas, 1914). Painter. He is considered one of the country's four classical painters of the 19th century, along with **Martín Tovar y Tovar** (who was his master), **Arturo Michelena**, and **Cristóbal Rojas**. Around 1875, he received a scholarship that allowed him to travel to Europe and improve his artistic knowledge. During his life, he explored several genres, such as portraiture (*Martín Tovar y Tovar* [1878]) and historical painting (*Lamuerte de Ricaurte en San Mateo por Ricaurte* [1883]). Appointed in 1908 director of the **Fine Arts Academy**, in 1912 he had to deal with the division of the **Circle of Fine Arts**. *See also* VISUAL ARTS.

HISTORICAL DICTIONARY OF VENEZUELA (1989). One of the most important works of Venezuelan historiography, key to understanding the country. It was first edited in 1989, with a second edition in 1997 and a third in 2017, and was sponsored by Fundación **Empresas Polar**. It is a four-volume Spanish-language title created under the coordination of Manuel Pérez Vila, with collaboration from more than 350 researchers in several fields of knowledge. It has the merit of being the first work of its kind to summarize and unify the most important information on characters, events, places, and historical processes in Venezuelan historiography. At the moment, it is an essential reference work for both students and professors.

HORSE RACING. Although the first horses came to Venezuela in the early 16th century, it was in the beginning of the 19th that horse racing started in the country. In 1876, during **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**'s administration, the first racetrack was created, in El Callao. Later, the Jockey Club Venezuela was established, which stimulated activity and helped the sport gain popularity. In 1896, the Sabana Grande racecourse was built under **Joaquín Crespo**'s regime. Horse racing has been interrupted several times due to political crises (in the years 1897–1902, 1914–1920, and 1928–1932), but the Sabana Grande never stopped its course. The 20th century saw improvements in turf, jockey preparation, and horse breeding. In 1908, the racetrack of El Paraíso was inaugurated, one of the most popular of its time, until the building of La Rinconada in 1959 during **Rómulo Betacourt**'s administration. In 1932, it changed from its traditional mode of racing, now running the horses counterclockwise. In 1983, the racecourse of **Valencia** was constructed. Between 1910 and 1960, classic competitions were started that remain in place today,

like the Clásico Presidente de la República (1910, the oldest national tournament), the Clásico Fuerzas Armadas (1925), and the Clásico Simón Bolívar (1946). In the 1960s, Venezuela won the first Clásico del Caribe in Puerto Rico with the horse Vitoreado, the first international competition where a national competitor was victorious. This brought to fruition a tradition of horse racing in the country that has not stopped and continues to produce excellent exponents of the sport on the world stage.

HUMBOLDT, ALEXANDER VON (Berlin, Germany, 1769–Berlin, Germany, 1859). Naturalist and explorer, considered the founder of modern geographical **science**. His brother was the linguist and university reformer Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835). After he studied at the Universities of Frankfurt and Göttingen, he decided to devote his life to the study of nature. His project was to understand the functioning of the planet. In 1799, he obtained permission to visit, along with the French botanist Aimé Bonpland, the Spanish possessions in America. First, he passed through the Canary Islands, heading to Mexico, but due to problems with the weather, his boat veered to Venezuela, reaching **Cumaná** on 16 July 1799. For a year and a half, he explored the country, getting familiar with tropical ecosystems and landscapes that had not been explored. He visited the **mission** of Caripe, where he explored the **Guácharo Cave**, the largest in Venezuela. He visited the center of the country, being the first European to ascend to the Silla de Caracas on **Ávila Mountain**, accompanied by **Andrés Bello**. Then he headed to the Orinoco plains and discovered the Casiquiare Canal, which connects the basin of the **Orinoco River** with the Amazon. Finally, in November, he sailed to **Cuba**. The travels that Humboldt made through Venezuela are important for two reasons: because the encounter with an unknown landscape helped him to shape his ideas on geography, and because it created knowledge of the Venezuelan territory, climate, and vegetation that provided a fundamental geographical reference for Venezuelans up to the mid-20th century. For this reason, his *Le voyage aux régions équinoxiales du Nouveau Continent, fait en 1799–1804, par Alexandre de Humboldt et Aimé Bonpland*, first appearing in Paris in 1807, is a fundamental source for the study of Venezuela at that time. Humboldt made similar contributions to the understanding of Cuba and Mexico, as well as of various European countries. He encouraged **Agustín Codazzi** to develop a colonization project for Venezuela with German families, and the **Colonia Tovar** was established around 1845. At the end of his life, he convinced many German scientists to come to Venezuela. **Simón Bolívar**, with whom he corresponded for a while, with admiration, called him “the scientific discoverer of the New World.”

HUTTEN, PHILLIPP VON (Königshofen, Germany, 1511–Coro vicinities, 1546). Last **Welser** general captain of **Venezuela**. He arrived to **Coro** in 1535 with the expedition of **Jorge Spira** and took part in different expeditions in search of **El Dorado**. In 1546, along with Bartholomeus Welser, he was executed by **Juan de Carvajal**, which marked the end of German government in the country.

IBARRA BLANCO, ALEJANDRO (Caracas, 1813–Caracas, 1880). Philosopher, writer, researcher, and professor. In 1834, he graduated from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** with a PhD, going on to teach philosophy and experimental physics. Between 1870 and 1873, he became the university's rector. He worked with **Agustín Aveledo** on the university's primitive meteorological and astronomical observatory. He wrote course books on arithmetic, philosophy, and physics. *See also* SCIENCE.

IMBER, SOFÍA (Soroca, Moldavia, 1924–Caracas, 2017). Journalist and cultural manager, founder of the **Museum of Contemporary Art** in Caracas. She was the daughter of Jewish immigrants who arrived in Caracas in 1930, and her sister was **Lya Imber de Coronil**, the first **woman** to graduate as a physician in Venezuela. After leaving medical studies, she started to work in journalism. Married first to writer **Guillermo Meneses**, she got divorced and then married journalist and intellectual **Carlos Rangel**. She worked in diverse media but obtained unique fame as the moderator of interviews on the **television** program *Lo de Hoy* (1969–1993), hosted with Rangel. From 1973, she promoted and directed the Museum of Contemporary Art of Caracas, which has one of the best collections in Latin America and became a symbol of the city. In 1990, it was renamed in her honor as the Museum of Contemporary Art of Caracas Sofia Imber (MACCSI). However, in 2001, President **Hugo Chávez** dismissed her as director and reinstated the old name.

IMBER DE CORONIL, LYA (Odessa, Ukraine, 1914–Caracas, 1981). Doctor. The daughter of Jewish immigrants who arrived in Caracas in 1930, in 1936 she became the first **woman** in Venezuela to graduate from the medical school at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. She carried out a wide array of professional and union work. In 1941, she became a member of the board of directors of the Venezuelan Medical Association. She was director of the Children's Hospital J. M. De Los Ríos, the most important in Venezuela, and between 1972 and 1974 she was vice president of UNICEF. Her sister was the **journalist** and cultural manager **Sofía Imber**. *See also* HEALTH.

INDEPENDENCE DAY. The National Day of Venezuela is 5 July. It commemorates the date in 1811 when the **Congress** proclaimed independence from Spain. *See also* JULY 5, 1811.

INDIGENOUS PEOPLES. *See* ORIGINAL PEOPLE.

INSTITUTO PEDAGÓGICO NACIONAL. Founded in 1936 on the initiative of **Mariano Picón-Salas** as a center for teacher training, its main purpose was to train educators to carry out the **educational** reforms undertaken at that time. For its foundation, two groups of Chilean teachers were hired, known as the first and second Chilean missions. Shortly afterward, Spanish republicans were also brought in. Thus, the Pedagogical Institute not only introduced important innovations to Venezuelan educational **sciences**, but it also was the basis of higher humanistic and scientific studies in the country. Having its “golden age” in the 1940s, during the **military dictatorship**, it faced an elevated risk of being shut down. With the return of democracy in 1958, it experienced a major expansion, although it did not escape eventual crises. Today, renamed Pedagogical Institute of Caracas, it is part of the Universidad Experimental Libertador.

INSTITUTO VENEZOLANO DE INVESTIGACIONES CIENTÍFICAS (IVIC). The Venezuelan Institute of **Scientific** Research was created by decree on 9 February 1959 to fulfill three main objectives. The first was to create new knowledge through scientific research. The second was to educate new high-level scientists. Finally, it was to push technological development. Its first director was **Marcel Roche**. It was the first organization that sought to boost scientific knowledge on a big scale in Venezuela. *See also* FERNÁNDEZ MORÁN, HUMBERTO.

INTERNATIONAL NOVEL PRIZE RÓMULO GALLEGOS. Established by the Venezuelan state in 1964, this prize seeks to reward works by Spanish-language authors. Due to the quality and importance of the novels given the award, this prize is considered one of the most prestigious of the Spanish-speaking world. The first three novels recognized were, at the same time, three of the most representative of the Latin American literature boom: Mario Vargas Llosa’s *La Casa Verde* in 1967, Gabriel García Márquez’s *Cien años de soledad* in 1972, and Carlos Fuentes’s *Terra Nostra* in 1977. Also chosen were Fernando del Paso’s *Palinuro de México* in 1982, **Arturo Uslar Pietri**’s *La visita en el tiempo* in 1991, Roberto Bolaño’s *Los detectives salvajes* in 1999, Enrique Vila Mata’s *Viaje vertical* in 2001, Elena Poniatowska’s *El tren pasa primero* in 2007, and William Ospina’s *El país de la canela* in 2009, among others.

IRON. In the 18th century, Capuchin friars from Catalonia exploited iron deposits in the **Guayana Region**. Afterward, modest attempts were made to exploit these during the 19th and mid-20th centuries. During the 1950s, significant iron production was started by U.S. iron companies Orinoco Mining, Bethlehem Steel, and U.S. Steel in the **Cerro Bolívar** and El Pao mines, so output surged. When in 1975 **iron nationalization** took place, all companies passed to the state and have been operated since by Ferrominera del Orinoco. The largest iron deposits are located in **Bolívar State**. In addition to Cerro Bolívar and El Pao, there are deposits in the *cerros* (hills) Gutiérrez, La Imperial, Las Grullas, Piacoa, María Luisa, El Trueno, Altamira, San Isidro, San Joaquín, Las Pailas, Los Barrancos, La Estrella, Redondo, Toribio, and Arimagua. There are smaller deposits in **Miranda, Lara, and Apure States**. Iron production in Venezuela was 12.6 million tons in 2016, among the largest 20 producers in the world, yet far from its processing capacity of 25 million tons per year. Related industries had been developed around iron, such as steel, in which the largest operator is the state-owned SIDOR, with a production of one million tons of liquid steel in 2016, with a total capacity of five million tons. *See also* CORPORACIÓN VENEZOLANA DE GUAYANA.

IRON NATIONALIZATION. The **iron** extraction industry was nationalized on 1 January 1975, during **Carlos Andrés Pérez's** presidency. Since then, the state has assumed the direct control and management of this industry through **Corporación Venezolana de Guayana** and its subsidiary Ferrominera del Orinoco, created to operate the assets of the U.S. company Orinoco Mining.

ISLANDS. Venezuela has about 315 islands, cays, and islets, organized under the umbrella of the Dependencias Federales. The Dependencias Federales are of utmost importance to Venezuela, as they provide sovereignty over a substantial part of the southern part of the Caribbean Sea. Most of the best-known islands are located on the Caribbean; however, there are many other islands located in rivers, in lakes, and in the **Orinoco River** delta in the Atlantic Ocean. In the Caribbean, they are divided into two main groups: the oceanic islands (Archipiélago Las Aves, **Los Roques** and **Aves Island**) and the continental platform islands (La Tortuga, La Blanquilla, Los Testigos). By the 15th century, almost all these islands were known, as proved in the letters and maps of Diego de Rivero in 1529. The islands were first grouped in sections of the **Distrito Federal**. In 1909, the name changed to Dependencias Federales of the High Seas, except **Margarita, Coche, and Cubagua** Islands, grouped in the current **Nueva Esparta State**. In 2011, Territorio Insular Miranda was created with Las Aves, Los Roques, and Orchila Island, even though they are still part of the Dependencias Federales. The islands mainly

have desert vegetation due to a lack of potable water, with temperatures from 27 to 30 degrees Celsius. Their landscapes exhibit different ecosystems, including coral reef, mangrove, meadow marine grass, beach, and reef coast. The islands in the Caribbean make Venezuela an attractive place for tourist activities, including surfing, waterskiing, and diving.

J

JAMAICA LETTER (CARTA DE JAMAICA). Name by which the letter “Answer of a South American to a Gentleman of This Island” is conventionally known. It is also known as “The Prophetic Letter.” It was written by **Simón Bolívar** during his exile in Jamaica, dated 6 December 1815, from Kingston and sent to the Englishman Henry Cullen. The objective of this letter was to find British support for the cause of independence, which was then going through difficult times. Bolívar’s argument is based on three basic elements. First, a defense of the legitimacy of the revolution, founded in a critique of the Spanish colonial regime. Second, a demonstration that the movement, despite its recent defeats, was still alive. Third, a forecast of what Bolívar considered the future of Hispanic America, concluding that in the end the revolution would be triumphant. On the first element, he made a review of the history of Spanish America in which he contends that Hispanic Americans are a different sort of people compared to Europeans and **aborigines**, “an in-between species.” Even though his view is restricted only to the elite of creole whites, from among whom Bolívar came, it is considered an important precedent in the construction of modern Latin American identity. He also made a proposal for Hispanic American integration that preceded contemporary models, calling for a congress of representatives of the independent republics that would help to regulate their relations. The last part of the letter, which is the one that makes it “prophetic,” predicts the future of the territories then fighting for their independence, in general with a correct forecast of the outcome. Published in a Jamaican newspaper in 1818, the letter is considered one of the fundamental texts of Latin American thought.

JANUARY 23, 1958. On this day in Venezuelan history, the decisive pressure of civilians and the military overthrew the dictator **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. After six years of political repression and suppression of freedom of assembly and speech, from late 1957 until January 1958 different expressions of civil and military nonconformity were developed. Once Pérez Jiménez was removed, a military board headed by Vice Admiral **Wolfgang Larrazábal** and Colonels Carlos Araque, Pedro Quevedo, Roberto Casanova, and Abel Romero was established. However, Larrazábal changed the structure of the

military board, dismissing Casanova and Romero due to their links with Pérez Jiménez and bringing in the civilians **Eugenio Mendoza Goiticoa** and Blas Lamberti. **Edgar Sanabria** was appointed secretary. The union was called the Governing Board.

JANUARY 24, 1848, EVENTS OF. Known as the assault or the fusillade of the Congress, it was an affray that occurred in the National Congress, marking the definitive rupture of the **Conservatives** and **Liberals**, who had carried out almost two decades of continuous friction and confrontation. Due to the strong political dispute between the government of **José Tadeo Monagas** of the Liberal Party and **José Antonio Páez**, supported by the Conservatives, at the beginning of 1848, the Congress, dominated by conservatives, wanted to discuss the prosecution of Monagas, accusing him of having exercised extraordinary powers unlawfully, violating the constitution. On 24 January, Minister of Interior and Justice Martín Sanabria went to the legislative branch to render the annual report of the executive. With Sanabria still on the premises, outside a rumor grew that he had been arrested or killed, unnerving liberal mobs that had gathered in the street. Attempting to enter, they were repelled by the guard, initiating the confrontation. During the assault, **Santos Michelena** was injured, dying shortly after. Other parliamentarians were also killed or wounded. After these events, the legislative and judicial powers lost their independence and submitted to the will of President Monagas; it took years for them to regain their autonomy. The next day the Congress, which until then had tried to prosecute the president, became docile and served as an instrument complacent to the personalism of the leader. *See also* TORO, FERMÍN.

JOROPO. Traditional musical genre of Venezuela and **Colombia**, considered a part of the national culture. There are many variants, although all maintain a common base; its antecedent is the Spanish fandango. The earliest news we have of its existence comes in 1749, when the authorities forbade it, considering it immoral.

JOURNALISM. The beginnings of journalism in Venezuela were belated. In 1789, the *Courier de la Trinité Espagnole* appeared, edited in **Trinidad** by French Antilles immigrants, written in both Spanish and French, and containing political information. Nonetheless, it had a short existence. After the failure of the Siege of **Coro** by **Francisco de Miranda** in 1806, the royalist authorities obtained a printing press and gave birth to the *Gazeta de Caracas* (1808–1822), which spread important news from both the patriotic and monarchic sides. When the independence movement began, newspapers with

a political purpose proliferated, like *El Patriota de Venezuela* (1811–1812), directed by **Vicente Salias** and **Antonio Muñoz Tébar**, and *El publicista de Venezuela* (1811), directed by Francisco Ysnardi. However, all of them had a short life, a characteristic that persisted throughout the 19th century. Among these, the *Correo del Orinoco* was especially important, not only for its long run but also for being the main diffuser of the ideas of the patriots commanded by **Simón Bolívar** between 1818 and 1822. During the **War of Independence**, national journalism had a propagandistic bent in favor of the republican cause. Once the war was over, *doctrinarian efforts* began between the **Liberal** and **Conservative** parties, as can be seen in *El Venezolano*, the newspaper of the Liberal Party; both the paper and the party were founded by **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán** in 1840. During this period, articles were addressed to a select group of elites, reflected in the seriousness that most of the journals showed in their information (political, scientific, theoretical, etc.). There were also satirical journals (or *prensa jocoseria*), like *El Jején* (1854) and *Pica y Juye* (1858). During **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**'s administration, *La Opinión Nacional* (1872–1892) was very important and supportive of the government. In 1872, the *Gaceta Oficial* started, wherein official information regarding **laws** and decrees has been published up to the present. In the 20th century, the first journals that remain today appeared, like *El Universal* (1909), founded by **Andrés Mata**, and *El Impulso* (1919), founded by Pedro Francisco Carmona. However, it was after the **Juan Vicente Gómez** dictatorship that a new kind of journalism spread throughout the nation, spurred by a regulated liberty of press that was continually expanded. With this, several newspapers were created, becoming national references to today's reader. Some of these are *Últimas Noticias* (1941), founded by "Kotepa" Delgado, Víctor Simone D'Lima, Vaughan Salas Lozada, and Pedro Beroes; *El Nacional* (1943), founded by **Miguel Otero Silva**; and *Diario 2001* (1973), founded by Armando de Armas Meléndez. The arrival of radio in the 1930s opened a new spectrum for journalism. Radio news gained a greater range of penetration in a society in which there were still many illiterate people and in which print could not be distributed everywhere. The arrival of **television** in 1953 pushed this phenomenon even further. TV news quickly became famous, such as the *Observador Creole*, broadcast by **Radio Caracas Televisión**.

Professionalized journalism started in 1946 with the creation of the School of Journalism at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. Thirty years later, in 1976, the National Association of Journalists was created. As of 2016, there were 12 colleges offering courses for the future journalist in Venezuela, with sites in several regions of the country. In the early 21st century, journalism faced several challenges, from the crisis in the television industry to

political confrontations that made freedom of expression difficult. Similarly, the global trend of declining readership of print media influences this situation. However, digital media has opened up a great opportunity, with many sites having a great impact on society.

JULY 5, 1811. On this day, the first Venezuelan **congress**, installed in **Caracas** on 2 March 1811, declared the independence of Venezuela from Spain. Representatives from seven of the 10 provinces belonging to the **General Captaincy of Venezuela**, gathered at the Chapel Santa Rosa de Lima, declared their independence from the Crown of Spain, establishing a new nation based on republican and federal principles, under the values of equality of individuals, prohibition of censorship, and freedom of expression. This enshrined the constitutional principle and abolished forever the monarchy. The declaration is notable for being the first case of a Spanish colony in America declaring its absolute independence. The date is celebrated as **Independence Day**.

JUNTA REVOLUCIONARIA DE GOBIERNO (1945-1948). A seven-member presidential board formed after the **October 18, 1945**, movement that overthrew **Isaías Medina Angarita**. Five civilians, including **Rómulo Betancourt** as president, **Raúl Leoni**, **Luis Beltrán Prieto Figueroa**, and Gonzalo Barrios (members of **Acción Democrática**) and Edmundo Fernández (an independent) formed it. There were also two military members, **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud** and Mario Vargas. The junta approved a new electoral statute allowing for the first universal vote for all Venezuelans, including **women** and those who could not read, to elect the Constitutional Assembly that when on to pass the **Constitution** of 1947. Under this new constitution, President **Rómulo Gallegos** was elected. The junta dissolved in February 1948 when Gallegos assumed office. This period, along with the brief government of Gallegos, it is known as the **Trienio**.

JUNTA SUPREMA CONSERVADORA DE LOS DERECHOS DE FERNANDO VII (JUNTA SUPREMA DE CARACAS). Institution that governed the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** from **April 19, 1810**, until 2 March 1811, when the **Congress of 1811** was installed.

K

KARIÑA PEOPLE. Aboriginal ethnic group of **Caribbean people** living in Venezuela, **Brazil**, and the Guianas. In Venezuela, there are around 30,000, specifically in **Anzoátegui** and **Bolívar States**. During the 16th and 17th centuries, they resisted Spanish penetration into their territory, crafting an alliance with the Dutch in the Guianas and the Antilles. Nevertheless, in the mid-18th century, Spain was able to impose itself on their territories, especially through Catholic **missions**. This generated an important trans-culturation process, even though they conserved important elements of their culture, like the traditional *mare-mare* dance, considered an essential piece of Venezuelan folk tradition. *See also* PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD.

KLEIN-VENEDIG. Literally, “Little Venice” in German. Name that the **Welsers** gave to Venezuela in their documents during their term (1528–1545).

L

LA COSIATA. This is the name by which the secession movement against the union of Venezuela and the Republic of Colombia (**Gran Colombia**) is known. **Valencia**'s City Council, supporting **José Antonio Páez** as general commander of Venezuela, started the movement in 1826, openly ignoring the mandates of Colombian government authorities in Bogotá. The initial cause was the introduction of certain amendments to the Constitution of Cúcuta considered contrary to Venezuelan interests. But despite **Simón Bolívar**'s mediation, the movement strengthened Páez as the leader of the Venezuelan separatist movement and was the basis for the dissolution of Colombia in 1830.

LAMAS, JOSÉ ÁNGEL (Caracas, 1775–Caracas, 1814). Composer and member of the **Escuela de Música de Chacao**. He is known for his piece *Popule Meus*, composed in 1801 and performed in the Cathedral of Caracas on Good Friday of that year. It remains the main musical referent of Venezuelan Holy Week. *See also* MUSIC.

LANDAETA, JUAN JOSÉ (Caracas, 1780–Caracas, 1812). Musician, composer, and conductor. He is credited as the composer of the 1810s patriotic song “Gloria al bravo pueblo,” declared the **national anthem** in 1881. But authorship is also attributed to Lino Gallardo. He died during the **Earthquake of 1812**.

LANDER, TOMÁS (Caracas, 1787–Caracas, 1845). Journalist, politician, thinker, and planter. He was one of the most remarkable exponents of liberalism in Venezuela, along with **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán**. A graduate in philosophy of the **Universidad de Caracas**, he was secretary to **Simón Bolívar** in 1813. After the fall of the **Second Republic**, he remained exiled in the Caribbean Islands. When he returned to **Caracas** in 1818, the city remained in Spanish hands. As the reforms of the Spanish Liberal Revolution of 1820 were applied, he started to publish several articles in which he supported freedom of the press and of worship. During the **Gran Colombia** era, he was a member of the liberal circles of Caracas that opposed the union, editing

newspapers like *El Venezolano* (1822–1824). He participated in the foundation of the **Liberal Party** in 1840, the first Venezuelan **political party**.

LARA (STATE). Located in the center-west of the country, it has an area of 19,800 square kilometers (2.16 percent of the country), with a **population** of 1,774,867 (2011 census, 6.13 percent of the country). With its capital in **Barquisimeto**, it is divided into nine municipalities and 58 parishes. Conquered by federal troops in 1859, the old province of Barquisimeto was transformed into a state that year. In 1881, during the reorganization of Venezuela into the *grandes estados*, the Lara Great State was created, honoring **Jacinto Lara**, an independence hero. Once the great states disappeared, it was again named Barquisimeto State until 1909, when it was renamed Lara State. The geography of the state is complex due to the convergence of three mountain systems, the Andes, Costa, and Coriano. In addition, it has a tectonic depression called the Lara or Carora–Barquisimeto Depression. The hydrography of the state is limited, but it has four important basins for the Tocuyo, Turbio, Sanare, and Acarigua Rivers. The state has great resources for cattle and **agriculture**, including corn, sugarcane, and sorghum. It also has manufacturing and metal-processing industries.

LARA, JACINTO (Carora, 1778–Barquisimeto, 1859). Military officer. He was part of the Patriotic Society of Caracas after the events of **April 19, 1810**. His broad participation during the **War of Independence** included the taking of **Valencia** in 1812, the **Campaña Admirable** in 1814, the conquest of **Guayana** in 1817, the liberation of Nueva Granada in 1819, and the liberating campaign in Peru in 1824. He acted under the command of **Francisco de Miranda**, **Simón Bolívar**, **José Antonio Páez**, and **Antonio José de Sucre**, reaching the rank of general of division. After the dissolution of **Gran Colombia**, he had no great participation in public life until he assumed the governorship of his native province, **Barquisimeto**, between 1843 and 1847. Since 1881, this province has borne his name.

LARRAZÁBAL UGUETO, WOLFGANG (Carúpano, 1911–Caracas, 2003). Military officer, politician, and president of the governing junta from 23 January to 14 November 1958. He was a significant factor in the overthrow of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** on **January 23, 1958**, as the highest-ranking officer in the **armed forces**. After he took office, he declared the government would be transitional and elections would be called the following December. Immediately, he fostered political openness: the releasing from jail of political prisoners, the returning of those exiled, the restoration of press freedom, and the legalizing of **political parties**. Due to the critical **economic**

situation left by the **military dictatorship** and to alleviate high unemployment, an emergency plan was implemented in which the unemployed were remunerated for unproductive or low-productivity work. In May, the visit of U.S. Vice President Richard Nixon ended in a street demonstration that endangered his physical integrity, creating a serious impasse with the government of the **United States**. Larrazábal had to handle a number of military crises, including an attempted coup by Minister of Defense General **Jesús María Castro León**. Due to his personal charisma and leadership during the period, he resigned from the Governing Board to run as a candidate in the upcoming elections, supported by **Unión Republicana Democrática**, coming in second in voting. Immediately, he was appointed ambassador to Chile. He was a senator and again ran for the presidency in 1963.

LAS CASAS, BARTOLOMÉ DE (Seville, Spain, 1484–Madrid, Spain, 1566). Known as the “Protector of the Indians,” he was a priest and author who argued against the abuses committed by the Spaniards against **original people**, which he documented in his famous history of the early colonization of the Americas, *A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies* (1552). He was convinced that the work of conquest and colonization should be exercised peacefully through the announcement and spread of the **Catholic** faith. He arrived in **Cumaná** in 1521 after the Council of Castile authorized him to create a peaceful colony in the territory and to apply his theories of populating **Tierra Firme** (the mainland) and proclaiming the gospel without shedding blood and without arms.

LASSER, TOBÍAS (Agua Larga, 1911–Caracas, 2006). Botanist. In 1935, he graduated as a physician from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, and in 1941 he obtained a master’s degree in **science** from the University of Michigan. In 1945, he proposed to the planners of the Ciudad Universitaria de Caracas the development of a botanical garden, assuming its direction and being since then a fundamental representative of its development. At the same time, he promoted the creation of a school of sciences where students could enroll in a biology major. The institution materialized in 1947 and in 1958 became the Faculty of Sciences of the UCV. The author of numerous books and scientific papers, including *Catálogo de la flora Venezolana* (1947), *Clave analítica de las familias de las Traqueophyta de Venezuela* (1954), *Botánica General* (1956), and *La vegetación de los Médanos de Coro* (1958), he made botanical explorations throughout Venezuela and collaborated in the discovery of several species. In 1945, he was chosen as a representative member of the Academy of Physical, Mathematical, and Natural Sciences. He directed the Venezuelan Society of Natural Sciences

and was secretary-general of the Venezuelan Association for the Advancement of Science.

LAURO, ANTONIO (Ciudad Bolívar, 1917–Caracas, 1986). Guitar player and composer. He studied at the Academia de Música y Declamación de Caracas. He graduated in 1940 as a composer and since then has dedicated his life to playing **music**. In 1985, he obtained the National Award for Music. He is considered one of the most remarkable guitarists in the world. One of his best-known pieces is “Natalia.”

LA VICTORIA BATTLE (12 February 1814). Military action during the **War of Independence**, part of the popular uprising led by **José Tomás Boves** against the **Second Republic**. Facing the advance of **Francisco Tomás Morales**, Boves’s second in command, **José Félix Ribas** mobilized toward the **Aragua** Valley all possible combatants from **Caracas**, including all slaves and students at the university. Morales was defeated in the town of La Victoria. Due to the participation of the students, Venezuela celebrates every 12 February as the Day of the Youth.

LAW SYSTEM. The formulation and approval of law codes in Venezuela was late. At its beginnings, Spanish laws had a great influence, but later French and Italian thought held sway. During the process of independence and through the **Constitution** of 1811, Spanish laws continued ruling the republic, establishing that every preexisting law would be valid that did not contradict the new constitutional order. This viewpoint was continued during the dissolving of the Republic of Colombia (**Gran Colombia**), as the resolution of 14 October 1830, established the attainment of all laws and decrees formulated before and during the existence of Colombia that were not contrary to the Constitution of 1830. During that year, the Congress formed committees to initiate national codification, specifically of the criminal code and of criminal procedure. Another commission was created in 1832 to create civil, criminal, and commercial codes. This shows that although initially the republic had to comply with colonial laws, it began to formulate a body of laws that would give continuity to what was already functioning but also give voice to the philosophical and political principles underlying the new Venezuelan state. In this manner, the Congress promulgated on 19 May 1836, the Code of Justice Procedure (known as the *código Arandino* after its author, Francisco Aranda), the first norm of its type in the republic. There were also new delegations frequently appointed to draft codes on other matters, with few results. As an example, in 1854, Julián Viso prepared a draft for the civil code, but the Congress did not approve it. In spite of these innumerable

efforts, it was not until 1862–1863 that the first commerce and civil codes (with French and Chilean influence by way of **Andrés Bello**) were dictated. Likewise, the code of civil procedure, the criminal code, and the code of criminal procedure were approved, although all, with the exception of the one on commerce, were repealed in August 1863 at the end of the **Federal War**. In 1873, with **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, a new national codification was issued when laws in civil, commercial, criminal, military, treasury, and civil and criminal procedures were promulgated. Referring to particular cases, the Civil Code of 1873, drafted by **Luis Sanojo**, was reformed and modernized on several occasions—1881, 1896, 1904, 1916, and 1922—but it was not until 1942, after years of preparation and discussion, that the new code renewed its stipulations. In 1982, it was reformed again regarding family and marriage, and later it was complemented by special laws such as the Family Protection Law. The Trade Code of 1862 was replaced in 1873, being in force until 1904. This served as the base Venezuelan code, with modifications in 1919 and in 1955, until it was adapted to the Hague Convention. However, as in the case of the civil code, there are laws that affect, modify, or expand the commercial code. In 1873, a commission composed of **Juan Pablo Rojas Paúl** and **Cecilio Acosta** drafted the criminal code. Subsequently, it was reformulated in 1897 and in 1915, with subsequent modifications, until the adoption of the last code in 2005. The code of civil procedure (the Arandino) was displaced in 1863 and in 1873, with a revision in 1880 and in 1897. A new code was formulated in 1916, in which **Pedro Manuel Arcaya** participated, remaining unchanged until 1990. At the same time, the Arandino code contained stipulations about criminal procedure. So the establishment of proper codification started from the beginning of the republic, was altered later with emblematic formulations in the *paecista* and *guzmancista* codes, and saw its last formulations in 2009 and 2013. The code of criminal procedure under Guzmán Blanco in 1873 was replaced in 1882 and in 1884, and partially reformed in 1897, 1904, 1911, and in 1915. In 1926, another code of this type was established, changed in 1957 and in 1962. Finally, the Organic Taxing Code was approved in 1984, having its final formulations approved in 2001 and 2014. *See also* SWISS CONSTITUTION.

LAYA, ARGELIA (Río Chico, 1926–Río Chico, 1997). Politician, teacher, guerrilla commander, **Afro-Venezuelan**, and feminist leader. A militant of the **Communist Party of Venezuela (PCV)**, she joined the *lucha armada* in the 1960s under the alias Comandante Jacinta. Once the guerrillas were defeated, she was among the self-critical communists who abandoned the PCV because of its loyalty to Stalinism and founded the Movimiento al Socialismo **political party**. As a politician, she defended the rights of **women**.

LAZO MARTÍ, FRANCISCO (Calabozo, 1869–Maiquetía, 1909). Poet, politician, and doctor. He was the best exponent of the *nativismo*, a literary movement known for its artistic representation of the local landscape. His major work, *Silva criolla a un bardo amigo* (1901), is mandatory reading for anyone wanting to learn more about Venezuelan **literature**. In 1890, at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, he graduated as a doctor with remarkable grades. Back in his birthplace, he practiced **medicine** in the central plains of Venezuela (*llanos*), taking the landscape as a major inspiration for his literary works. During that period, he started a long friendship with **Lisandro Alvarado**. In politics, in 1892, he supported **Joaquín Crespo**'s administration, and in 1902 he joined the **Revolución Libertadora** against **Cipriano Castro**'s government. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

LECUNA, VICENTE (Caracas, 1870–Caracas, 1954). Banker, politician, and historian. In 1889, he graduated as a civil engineer from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. In 1900, he got into the business of banking, transferring funds between **Caracas** and Puerto Cabello for major **commercial houses**. Appointed president of the Banco de Venezuela in 1915, he remained in that position for 39 years, transforming it into the country's largest private banking institution. In 1914, the government entrusted him with the management and conservation of the Archivo del Libertador (**Simón Bolívar**'s archives), an occupation he exercised until the end of his days. In 1916, he was responsible for rebuilding the **Casa Natal del Libertador** (Birthplace of Simón Bolívar). He wrote and published numerous books concerning Bolívar: *Papeles de Bolívar* (1917), *Documentos referentes a la creación de Bolivia, con un resumen de las guerras de Bolívar* (1924), *Cartas del Libertador* (10 volumes, 1929–1930), *Proclamas y discursos del Libertador* (1939), *La Entrevista de Guayaquil: restablecimiento de la verdad histórica* (1952), *Simón Bolívar, Obras Completas* (1947), and *Crónica razonada de las guerras de Bolívar* (1950). Made a member of the **National Academy of History** in 1918, he was its director between 1931 and 1933. From 1939, he was president of the **Bolivarian Society**.

LEGIÓN BRITÁNICA (BRITISH LEGION). Name given to the group of European soldiers that volunteered to fight in the **War of Independence**. Most of them came from Britain, Ireland, and Hannover. The recruitment began in 1817, when **Simón Bolívar** sent people to Europe to gain warriors and guns, finishing in 1820. It is estimated that around 6,500 men enlisted, of which 5,300 actually made it to the country. The group participated in important campaigns like the Battles of Boyacá (1819), Pichincha (1822), and **Carabobo** (1823). One of the most important members of this legion was **Daniel Florencio O'Leary**, Bolívar's aide-de-camp.

LEÓN, JUAN FRANCISCO DE (El Hierro, Spain, 1692–Cádiz, Spain, 1752). Cocoa planter and leader of a rebellion against the **Compañía Guipuzcoana** in 1749. His removal from the office of *justicia mayor* (sort of a rural mayor) of Panaquire (present-day **Miranda State**) led him to rebel against the governor, who was closely related to the company. As cocoa planters were very displeased with the monopoly **Compañía Guipuzcoana** had, lowering cocoa prices, the movement attracted wide sectors in the **province of Venezuela**, which allowed them to take **Caracas**. The rebels forced the governor to expel company representatives. However, in 1751, a new governor arrived with a military force of 600 men. León was captured and sent to the prison of La Carraca, in Spain, where he died a year later. The movement could be seen as one of the first signs of Venezuelan union, as local inhabitants fought for their rights against Spanish prejudicial politics.

LEONI, RAÚL (Upata, 1905–New York, United States, 1972). Politician, lawyer, and president of Venezuela between 1964 and 1969. As a student at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, in February 1928 he participated in the protest against **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s tyranny, being part of **Generación del 28**. Sent to jail and soon released, on 7 April he collaborated in the insurrection that ended in failure and was forced to leave the country. Exiled to **Colombia**, he founded with **Rómulo Betancourt** the party **Asociación Revolucionaria de Izquierda (ARDI)** and signed the **Barranquilla Plan**. With Gómez's demise, in 1936 he returned, only to be deported to Mexico by President **Eleazar López Contreras**, along with 36 other political leaders. In 1938, he moved to Colombia, obtaining his law degree at the **Universidad del Externado**. In 1939, he returned to Venezuela to begin clandestine activity with the **Partido Democrático Nacional**, known as **Acción Democrática (AD)** from 1941. In 1945, he became a member of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno** after the insurrection of **October 18** against **Isaías Medina Angarita**'s administration. He was also appointed minister of labor. Three years later, due to the coup d'état of 1948 against President **Rómulo Gallegos**, he was expelled to **Cuba**. In 1958, with the downfall of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**'s regime, he returned and served in various public positions. In 1963, he was the AD presidential candidate, being elected for the period 1964–1969. During his administration, there was an increase in public spending to finance both school and sanitary services, which could be accomplished thanks to high **oil** production, reaching 3,600,000 barrels per day in 1968. In the political field, he tried to maintain a coalition government with the **Unión Republicana Democrática** of **Jóvito Villalba** and the **Frente Democrático Nacional** of **Arturo Uslar Pietri**, although it finally broke up. His term was also marked by the *lucha armada* and terrorist actions directed by communist forces, especially the **Communist Party of Venezuela** and the **Movimiento**

de Izquierda Revolucionaria. In 1967, his administration had to face a Cuban intervention in Machurucuto, a beach located 100 miles from Caracas. As illegal forces weakened by the end of his presidential period, Leoni proposed a pacification policy, which allowed guerrillas to return to regular democratic life in order to defend their political thoughts. This idea was continued and made a reality during the first administration of **Rafael Caldera**. In 1966, the **Geneva Agreement** was signed with the United Kingdom and British Guiana, in order to address the **Essequibo Territory**. He was married to Menca de Leoni, one of the most memorable first ladies of the **República Civil**.

LGBT PEOPLE. Homosexuality and transsexuality were accepted in many of the **original cultures** that inhabited what is now Venezuela before the conquest. Sometimes homosexual people and especially transsexuals dedicated themselves to shamanism, since they were considered especially gifted for these practices. There are also indications of the practice of bisexuality in some of these cultures. This changed radically with the Hispanic colonization, which imposed the **religious**, moral, and legal criteria of Christianity and condemned homosexuality as a very serious sin and crime. In this way, LGBT issues are difficult to keep track of until the second half of the 20th century, when homosexuals began to declare themselves more openly. To this must be added a lack of systematic studies. Some trials and scandals, such as those of a couple of friars in the Convent of San Francisco in **Caracas** accused of sodomy in 1795 and an ecclesiastical report on several lesbian couples in **Maracaibo** in 1774, reveal a hidden reality with much care. However, the persistence of homosexuality as a crime explains its more or less clandestine character (even the Organic **Code** of Military Justice considers sexual acts “against nature” as a reason for expulsion). At the same time, homosexuality continued to be highly stigmatized in society. An example of this can be seen in the media, where the *loca* (madwoman) was a snitch character in the cartoons of the early 20th century, dressed like Oscar Wilde in **telenovelas**, comedies, and other programs. During the 1970s and 1980s, the *Gaitas de las Locas* (*gaita* is a musical genre of Christmas) were popular and collected gossip and jokes about homosexuals, interpreted by **Simón Díaz** and his brother “Joselo.” In fact, a 2013 study found that 49 percent of Venezuelans considered homosexuality morally unacceptable. With the sexual revolution of the 1960s, some homosexuals and some transsexuals began to make their orientations public. In 1960, the then well-known actress Karla Luzbel underwent gender reassignment. She participated in various telenovelas and comedy shows on **television**. Another famous case is that of the poet **Esdras Parra**, born with a male gender and undergoing a sex change operation in 1978. In 1971, the playwright **Isaac Chocrón** obtained a

huge success with the piece *The Revolution*, which deals with a homosexual couple. The AIDS epidemic caused homosexuals to become organized. In 1987, the NGO Citizen Action Against AIDS (ACCSI) was created, and in 1993 the first political group, the Venezuelan Environment Movement (MAV), led by Oswaldo Reyes, was founded. Thus, within the intense political conflicts that have characterized the first two decades of the 21st century, homosexuals have been able to introduce their proposals to political debate. Although the magnitude of the country's problems and the rejection by much of society of homosexuality and transsexuality have not allowed them to occupy a top spot on the agenda, they have made some achievements. In 2008, two Supreme Court resolutions established the protection of citizens against any discrimination based on sexual orientation and the recognition of same-sex couples, but without the protection and scope of marriage. In 2016, the Supreme Court also determined that protection would be provided without distinction to families of homoparental couples. In addition, in the parliamentary elections of 2015, the lawyer Tamara Adrián became the first transsexual deputy elected in Latin America.

LIBERAL OLIGRACHY. In historiography, this name is given to the period in which the **Liberal Party** ruled in alliance with the **caudillo José Tadeo Monagas**, between 1848 and 1858. The term was conceived by historian **José Gil Fortoul** in order to emphasize that the Liberals had also ruled as oligarchs, unlike their version of history in which the only oligarchs were the **Conservatives**. However, it was a period when measures such as the abolition of **slavery** were taken. The presidency was occupied by José Tadeo Monagas (1848–1851), his brother **José Gregorio Monagas** (1851–1855), and again José Tadeo Monagas (1855–1858), being the period known as the *monagato*. It is also called the liberal hegemony.

LIBERAL PARTY. *See* LIBERAL OLIGRACHY; POLITICAL PARTIES.

LIBERALISMO AMARILLO. Historiographic term for the period between 1870 and 1899 under the hegemony of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. It can be characterized as a period of **economic**, institutional, military, and international progress, although corruption entered into politics. Between 1870 and 1888, during the three terms of Guzmán Blanco, important advances were made, including relative peace, something not seen in Venezuela for some time after decades of uprisings, rebellions, and wars. After 1888, with the departure of Guzmán Blanco, the final decade of the period was characterized by general instability and economic and social problems, as well as internal discontent, which eventually facilitated the government's fall with

the **Revolución Liberal Restauradora** (1899), which marked the rise of the **Andean Hegemony**.

LINARES ALCÁNTARA, FRANCISCO (Turmero, 1825–La Guaira, 1878). Soldier, politician, and president of Venezuela. He started his military career in 1846, participating in the insurrections of **Ezequiel Zamora** and Francisco Rangel. In 1854, he was elected a deputy to the National Congress from **Aragua State**. He also fought both during the **Federal War** between 1858 and 1863 and for the Liberal cause between 1868 and 1870 along with **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. On February 1877, he was elected president of the republic. His administration was characterized by a political openness in which the states had better control over their own budgets. In May 1877, Linares decreed an amnesty to all people who were exiled for political reasons. Freedom of the press increased too, with new **newspapers** like *La Prensa Libre* of Puerto Cabello and *La Tribuna Liberal* of **Caracas** practicing open opposition to *La Opinión Nacional*, the official daily. Those actions marked a distance between Guzmán Blanco and Linares Alcántara, who started to be called “the Great Democrat.” Although the reaction against his predecessor was gaining force, *guzmansista* officers took up arms, managing to seize the capital. At the same time, a bronchial infection severely affected the **health** of the president, who died a couple days after without finishing his term. During Linares Alcántara’s government, **José María Vargas**’s remains were moved to the **National Pantheon**.

LISCANO, JUAN (Caracas, 1915–Caracas, 2001). Poet, essayist, literary critic, and folklorist. Director of the Servicio de Investigaciones Folklóricas during the **Trienio** (1945–1948), he was the founder of the *Papel Literario* of *El Nacional* **newspaper**, at the time the most important literary supplement in the country. Some of his poetic works are *Contienda* (1942) and *Nuevo Mundo Orinoco* (1958). In the field of literary criticism, he wrote his *Panorama de la Literatura venezolana* (1973) and also published studies on folklore like *Folklore y cultura: ensayos* (1950) and *La fiesta de San Juan Bautista* (1972).

LITERATURE. Colonial Period. During this period and until the 18th century, there was no representative artistic production outside a few dramas that have not survived and some poems related to historical events. However, many of the chronicles of the Indies that were written by Spaniards in the New World are seen as the first examples of an incipient literature. **Juan de Castellanos** wrote in Sicilian octaves his *Elegías de Varones ilustres de Indias* (1589), a chronicle of his journey into the territories of both Colombia

and Venezuela. Pedro de la Cadena wrote *Los actos y hazañas valerosas del capitán Diego Hernández de la Serpa* (c. 1563–1564), considered by some critics the first Venezuelan national poem. There are also signs of lyrical production, as can be seen in Sor María Josefa de los Ángeles Paz y Castillo's poem "Mis Anhelos," written in the 17th century.

Independence Period. In the 19th century, poetry related to political motifs was written, mainly published in **newspapers** like *Gazeta de Caracas* and *Correo del Orinoco*. From this time stand out **Andrés Bello's** "Alocución a la poesía" (1823) and "Silva a la agricultura de la zona tórrida" (1826), the best examples of the neoclassical aesthetic.

Romantic Movement. The poets José Antonio Maitín ("Canto Fúnebre"), Abigail Lozano ("A la noche"), and **Juan Antonio Pérez Bonalde** ("Poema del Niágara") are the finest exponents of this current. In the field of romantic narrative, **Fermín Toro** published the first Venezuelan novel, *Los mártires* (1842).

Criollismo and Nativismo. The writers of these aesthetic currents explored local motifs in their novels, such as **Eduardo Blanco** (*Zárate*, 1882), Manuel Vicente Romero García (*Peonía*, 1890), and Luis Manuel Urbaneja Achelpohl (*En este país . . . !*, 1910). In the lyric, **Francisco Lazo Martí** explored *nativismo* in his "Silva criolla" (1901), along with poets like **Udón Pérez**.

Costumbrismo. This style is prominent in the prose of Daniel Mendoza, Nicanor Bolet Peraza, and Francisco de Sales Pérez.

Modernism. In the early 20th century, the modernist movement brought important changes, the best exponents being **Manuel Díaz Rodríguez** in his novel *Ídolos rotos* (1901) and Pedro Emilio Coll in *El Castillo de Elsinor* (1901). In poetry, Alfredo Arvelo Larriva with his *Enjambre de rimas* (1906) and José Tadeo Arreaza Calatrava, who wrote "Canto al ingeniero de minas" (1911), must be mentioned.

Early 20th-Century Renovation of Literature: Narrative. A few years later, **José Rafael Pocatererra** published his *Cuentos grotescos* (1922), **Teresa de la Parra** her novel *Ifigenia* (1924) and **Rómulo Gallegos** his famous *Doña Bárbara* (1929). The narrative genre extended its motifs thanks to the work of **Julio Garmendia** with *La tienda de Muñecos* (1927), **Arturo Uslar Pietri** with *Las lanzas coloradas* (1931), and **Enrique Bernardo Núñez** with *Cubagua* (1931).

Poetry. The lyric had changed, too. By that time, poets like **Antonio Ar-raíz** put out *Áspero* (1924), **José Antonio Ramos Sucre** *La torre del timón* (1925), and Fernando Paz Castillo *La voz de los cuatro vientos* (1931).

Avant-Garde. In the 1920s, the avant-garde broke into the cultural environment with groups like Seremos from **Maracaibo** (with members like **Ramón Díaz Sánchez**) in 1925, and the magazine *Válvula* published several writers

who pushed the limits of literature, including Arráiz, Ramos Sucre, and Uslar Pietri.

Essay. The essay rose in the middle of the 20th century, strongly related to historical and cultural themes. **Mariano Picón-Salas** is considered one of the best exponents of the genre, with works like *De la conquista a la independencia* (1944). Uslar Pietri in his work *Letras y hombres de Venezuela* (1948) created the term *realismo mágico* to explain the new literary expression of Latin America. Also of note is Armando Rojas Guardia and his book *El caleidoscopio de Hermes* (1989), Francisco Rivera and *Sobre literatura venezolana contemporánea* (1991), and Juan Carlos Santaella with *El huerto secreto* (1999).

Mid-20th-Century Literature. Around the 1950s and 1960s, literature had a second shift in both formal aspects and motifs. This development has not been interrupted and continues in today's artistic production. Between 1952 and 1953, **Guillermo Meneses** published his short tale "La mano junto al muro" and his novel *El falso cuaderno de Narciso Espejo*, both important works. Then authors like **Salvador Garmendia** with his novel *Los habitantes* (1961), José Balza with *Marzo anterior* (1965), and Adriano González León with *País portátil* (1968) continued the course. There were also several literary groups like Apocalipsis (1955), El Techo de la Ballena (1961), and Mesa Redonda (1959) from which emerged poets like Miyo Vestriini with *Pocas virtudes* (1986) and Rafael Cadenas with *Los cuadrenos del destierro* (1960).

LLANOS (REGION). It is a natural region shared by Venezuela and **Colombia**, bounded by the **Orinoco River** and the mountain ranges of the Andes (**Andean Region**) and La Costa (Coastal). The region is a large plain with heights no higher than 100 meters above sea level. Geologically, it is a sedimentary basin formed by erosion from the Andean and Coastal mountains that filled the Llanero Inland Sea in the tertiary and quaternary periods, which allowed for the formation of **oil** deposits. In ecological terms, it is a typical savanna ecosystem. The plains are divided into the *llanos altos* (high plains) and *llanos bajos* (low plains), depending on their location in the Andean piedmont, along the coast, or on the banks of the Orinoco River. Another division is *llanos occidentales* (western plains) and *llanos orientales* (eastern plains), depending on the location in respect to the center of Venezuela. In Colombia, the plains are known as *llanos orientales* because they are in the east of that country. In Venezuela, the plains extend through the states of **Guárico**, **Apure**, **Portuguesa**, and **Cojedes** and in the south of **Aragua**, **Anzoátegui**, and **Monagas**. There is an administrative region of Los Llanos, but it is integrated only in Guárico and Apure States. The predominant economic activities are **agriculture** and cattle raising due to the composition and fertility

of the soil. Crops include corn, rice, cotton, and sorghum, and hydrocarbons are extracted. Due to the prominent role played by the *llaneros* during the **War of Independence** and their rich culture (especially the **zoropo**), the area constitutes an essential element of national identity. In fact, the musical composition considered the second national anthem is the song “**Alma llanera**.”

LLOVERA PÁEZ, LUIS FELIPE (Ciudad Bolívar, 1913–Caracas, 1977). Military officer. Close to **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, he was a member of military juntas between 1948 and 1952 and held the position of minister of internal affairs during the **military dictatorship**. After Pérez Jiménez became president, between 1953 and 1958, Llovera was responsible for developing industrialization in the **Guayana Region** as director of the Oficina de Estudios Especiales. In 1956, he was also appointed minister of communications. On **January 23, 1958**, Llovera left Venezuela together with Pérez Jiménez. In 1971, he founded Partido Nacional Integracionista, used as a hub for all *perezjimenista* organizations in the 1973 presidential elections, suffering a serious setback.

LÖFLING, PEHR (Gastrikeland, Sweden, 1729–San Antonio del Caroní, 1756). Botanist, disciple of Carl Linnaeus, and member of the Royal Swedish Academy of **Sciences**. From 1754 until his death, he was part of the Expedición de Límites al Orinoco (Boundaries Expedition to the Orinoco) as chief botanist, bringing the first microscope to the area. The expedition was organized by Spain between 1754 and 1761 to establish the limits with Portugal of its possessions in South America. When Löflying arrived, there were few scientific investigations of the natural history of Venezuela. The descriptions of the flora and fauna that existed had been made by the chroniclers of the Indies and lacked methodological rigor. Löflying made the first scientific descriptions of the flora and fauna (he traveled around **Cumaná**, the *llanos*, and the **Guayana Region**) as well as collected botanical and zoological specimens. In 1758, the results of his studies, *Inter Hispanicum*, were published under Linnaeus’s supervision. He inspired the voyage of **Alexander von Humboldt**.

LÓPEZ, JUAN PEDRO (Caracas, 1724–Caracas, 1787). Painter, sculptor, and gilder. He is one of the few artists of the colonial period whose authorship is known, although the identity of his masters and his disciples remain uncertain. His painting is basically religious, and more than 200 works are attributed to him. He was **Andrés Bello**’s grandfather.

LÓPEZ CONTRERAS, ELEAZAR (Queniquea, 1883–Caracas, 1973). Military officer and politician, minister of war, and president of Venezuela

between 1935 and 1941. He played a key role in the efficient and gradual transition to democracy and the modernization of state policies as reflected in a boost of **health** measures, the modern organization of the **army**, and the promotion of **education**. He graduated from high school at the Sacred Heart of Jesus School, located in La Grita, **Táchira State**. When only 16 years old, he joined the troops of the **Revolución Liberal Restauradora** led by **Cipriano Castro**. From that point, his military career supporting the new government led him to gain different military positions. With the fall of Castro and the ascent to the presidency of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, López Contreras expanded his career not only in the military but also at the administrative level, traveling to Europe and the **United States**. Following these experiences, he started the modernization of the Venezuelan Army. He climbed to the top of the army structure until being made minister of war and navy from 1931 to 1935. With the death of Gómez, he assumed the interim presidency until 19 April 1936, when he was proclaimed by Congress as the constitutional president of the republic for the period 1936–1943. His presidency has been characterized as a government of transition to democracy. Even though there were some restrictions on political activities and limitations of media freedom, space for interaction with labor and education representatives was opened. There was also a promotion of European immigration and important development in the military industry. With the reform of the **Constitution** of 1936, he reduced the presidential term from seven to five years. From 1941, López Contreras continued, with less strength, in the Venezuelan political and electoral environment. After founding a political organization, the Agrupaciones Cívicas Bolivarianas, in 1937, he tried to return to power in 1945. The coup of **October 18, 1945**, sent him into exile, where he organized several conspiracies to return to power. After the establishment of democracy in 1958, he was recognized as a former president with the right to be a senator. Alongside his political and military work, he developed plentiful and respectable historiographical work: *Sucre: síntesis de la vida militar* (1944), *Páginas de historia militar de Venezuela* (1944), and *Proceso político y social 1928–1936* (1955). He had earlier published his classic *Bolívar, conductor de tropas* (1930).

LÓPEZ DEL ROSARIO, ANDRÉS “ZAMBO ANDRESOTE” (Valencia, ?–Curaçao, ?). Rebellion leader. A **cocoa** farmer, between 1730 and 1732 he led a rebellion against the monopoly of the **Compañía Guipuzcoana**. When the company banned trade with other countries and dropped cocoa prices, Andresote formed an armed movement, mainly of slaves and **pardos**, although some white planters also supported him. They wanted to sell their cocoa directly to the Caribbean islands, especially to Dutch traders settled in Curaçao, but the new monopoly treated these transactions as smuggling. The

guerrillas resisted the royal army for two years, but the governor's superior troops eventually defeated the rebels. Andresote was able to escape to Curaçao, but most of his followers were executed and dismembered. Although Andresote neither rebelled against the monarchy nor against **slavery**, today he is considered a symbol of the resistance of **Afro-Venezuelan** people.

LÓPEZ MENDOZA, LEOPOLDO (Caracas, 1971–). Politician and mayor of Chacao (a municipality of **Caracas**) between 2000 and 2008. The coordinator of the social democratic **political party** Voluntad Popular, imprisoned since 2014, López is the most notorious of the current political prisoners in Venezuela. After receiving a master's degree in public policy at Harvard University, he returned and began to participate in political activities. Opposed to the policies of President **Hugo Chávez**, he first joined the center party Primero Justicia and later the social democratic party Un Nuevo Tiempo. He was elected mayor of Chacao, the richest municipality of Caracas, in 2000 and reelected in 2004 with 80 percent of the votes. His successful management of this mayoralty gave him great public notoriety. A judicial decision disqualified him politically in 2008, so he could not run for other positions. Nevertheless, he dedicated himself to organizing a movement of his own. The Inter-American Court of Human Rights declared this disqualification a clear violation of his rights, a decision that the Supreme Court of Venezuela declared impossible to execute. Thus, López became one of the most critical voices within the opposition. In 2014, he led the national protests against President **Nicolás Maduro**. For this reason, he was imprisoned and sentenced to 13 years. The conditions of his imprisonment and the sentence have been denounced by various human rights organizations, such as Amnesty International, Human Rights Watch, and the **United Nations**, especially when the public prosecutor, after fleeing to the **United States**, stated that the government arranged the trial. However, by June 2017, López, according to all the surveys, was among the three politicians with the most support in Venezuela.

LOS CAYOS EXPEDITIONS (31 March–31 May 1816). Name by which the two invasions directed by **Simón Bolívar** from Haiti with the purpose of liberating Venezuela are known. With the support of Haitian President Alexandre Pétion, Bolívar was able to organize an expeditionary force that after defeating a Spanish squadron in the Naval Battle of Los Frailes disembarked on **Margarita Island**. The island had already been liberated by a rebellion led by **Juan Bautista Arismendi**. From there, several actions were undertaken to land in **Tierra Firme**. Although they had many reverses, in the long run the invaders manage to dominate the **Oriente** (the eastern part of the country) and **Guayana**.

LOS MONJES ARCHIPELAGO. One of the **Dependencias Federales**, located in the northeast of the **Gulf of Venezuela**. The archipelago has three groups of **islands**: North, East, and South. Among Los Monjes South, there is a great fishing ground due to the strong motion of the waves. There are salt deposits in the area, and large **oil** and gas reserves are presumed as well. These islands were dominated by the Caquetios **aborigines** before the conquest, and in 1528 they were part of the territory granted to the **Welsers**. Since independence, Venezuela and **Colombia** have disputed this area, which almost triggered a war in 1952. As a result of this Incidente de los Monjes, Colombia recognized Venezuelan sovereignty. Over the years, Venezuela has seen the islands shrink as land is lost to the sea, and the country maintains a military base on the islands. *See also* CRISIS OF THE *CALDAS COR-VETTE*.

LOS ROQUES ARCHIPELAGO. This reef complex is the largest in size and diversity in Venezuela. In 1972, it was named a national park for its protection. It consists of five geological forms: barrier reefs, outward reefs, more than 40 islets and **islands**, coral benches, and a central lagoon called Los Corales. Los Roques has a permanent **population** (1,143 inhabitants in the 2001 census). It is one of the most important tourist attractions in Venezuela due to its natural features, including sandbanks, fishing, coral reefs, and animal diversity.

LOSADA, DIEGO DE (Rionegro del Puente, Spain, 1511–?, c. 1570). Conqueror and founder of **Caracas** in 1567. After having participated in numerous expeditions and in the foundation of **Barquisimeto**, as well as in the defeat of the *cimarrones* (escaped **slaves**) revolt led by **El Negro Miguel**, he was entrusted with the conquest of the region of Caracas, where native resistance had repeatedly ejected the Spaniards. After defeating the **Caracas Indians** in several battles, but especially in the Battle of Maracapana, he managed to settle the city that he called Santiago de León de Caracas. After that, he retired to his possessions in the region of Barquisimeto.

LOVERA, JUAN (Caracas, 1776–Caracas, 1841). Painter, supporter of the patriotic cause, and portraitist of independence heroes. In 1827, he painted **Simón Bolívar**. As an eyewitness to the Venezuelan revolution, he created two works of incalculable historical value: *El 19 de Abril de 1810*, painted in 1835, and *El 5 de Julio de 1811* in 1837.

LUCHA ARMADA (ARMED STRUGGLE). During the 1960s, as a result of the triumph of the Cuban Revolution, irregular groups emerged in the country with the goal of placing Venezuelan society under communism. The

insurgents rose in arms against the democratic system during the constitutional presidencies of **Rómulo Betancourt** and **Raúl Leoni**, mostly sponsored by the revolutionary government of **Cuba**. In 1962, after the failure of the coup d'état attempts of *Carupanazo* (4 May) and *Porteñazo* (2 June), the Venezuelan left, composed of the **Communist Party of Venezuela (PCV)** and the **Movimiento de Izquierda Revolucionaria (MIR, Movement of the Revolutionary Left)**, started to organize the **Frente Armado de Liberación Nacional (FALN, National Liberation Armed Forces)**. Immediately, guerrilla fronts in both urban and rural areas were founded with the purpose of concretizing the revolutionary process. As the armed conflict became increasingly aggravated, its actions were concentrated on urban commandos, mainly in **Caracas**, and on the guerrilla fronts located principally in **Lara, Falcón, and Portuguesa States**. At the same time, the government responded to the disintegration of the guerrillas through tactical operations of the **armed forces** and the intelligence services. During 1963, several events took place, among which the most outstanding was the *El Encanto* train attack in Los Teques, **Miranda State**. Even though it was conceived as a propaganda action, the operation turned out to be a confrontation in which several national guards died. The government of Betancourt responded by ordering the suspension of legal activities for the PCV and the MIR and with the incarceration of **Gustavo Machado** and others who held seats in the National Congress as deputies, accused of acting under cover of their parliamentary immunity. For the presidential election of 1963, the FALN called for abstention. Nevertheless, the vote of 90 percent of registered voters constituted an important failure for the movement as popular masses did not uphold the insurgent effort but supported the democratic system established since 1959. By 1965, the PCV decided to change the political line toward one of “democratic peace.” This marked the beginning of the end for the guerrilla movement, which came to fruition with the pacification policy promoted by President **Rafael Caldera** in March 1969. This armed struggle was inscribed in the context of the cold war between the **United States** and the Soviet Union, with the search for “democracy” on one side and the implementation of “socialism” on the other. *See also* ACCIÓN DEMOCRÁTICA; POLITICAL PARTIES.

LUSINCHI, JAIME (Clarines, 1924–Caracas, 2014). Politician, pediatrician, and president of Venezuela between 1984 and 1989. In 1939, he joined the Partido Democrático Nacional (later **Acción Democrática**) and two years later settled in **Caracas**. In 1947, he graduated as a surgeon from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** and in 1949 went into hiding following the military coup against President **Rómulo Gallegos**. In 1952, the **Seguridad Nacional** captured him and expelled him from the country. He lived in Argentina, Chile, and the **United States** practicing medicine. In

1958, he returned after **January 23**. From then on, political activity was his priority, and he occupied several positions inside his party, being the head of the parliamentary section in the National Congress for 12 years. Between 1978 and 1983, he served as a senator. In 1983, he was elected president of the Republic of Venezuela for the period 1984–1989. During his term, the country was confronted with a deep **economic** crisis because of inflation, the size of the **external debt**, and a fall in **oil** prices. His administration inherited the crisis of **Viernes Negro**, generated during the government of **Luis Herrera Campins**. The price of oil decreased considerably, and while during the previous administration it hung around \$25 per barrel, by 1986 it had fallen to nearly \$12. The office of currency exchange control (RECADI), also inherited, was restructured during his term, and control over assets was greater than in the previous period. Four types of exchange rate were set, depending of the importance of the sector. RECADI became a source of major corruption. In 1984, Lusinchi promoted the creation of the **Comisión Presidencial para la Reforma del Estado (COPRE)** with the objective of formulating ideas that would contribute to the modernization of the state, in order to make it more democratic and efficient. Even though proposals were made, they were not listened to. Venezuelan diplomacy achieved much during his government, playing an important role in the peace processes in Central America and democratization measures in South America. In addition, the **crisis of the Caldas corvette** between **Colombia** and Venezuela occurred in the **Gulf of Venezuela**, which also showed his capabilities as a diplomat and elevated his popularity as a leader. The state built more than 30 hospitals throughout the country, and both the public and the private sectors built 423,312 houses, one of the highest totals among the administrations of the **República Civil**. His government was affected by his personal life, which transcended the public sphere, as in the extramarital affair he had with his secretary, Blanca Ibañez, who held enormous political power. After his term ended, he married her. In 1993, he was put on trial for allegations of corruption during his presidency.

LUTOWSKI, ALBERT (Random, Poland, 1809–Ciudad Bolívar, 1871). **Engineer** and inventor. After living in France and England, where he gained experience in **railroads**, in 1841 he settled in Venezuela. He worked as a designer on the Valencia–Puerto Cabello **road** (1845). From 1850, he supervised reconstructions of **Caracas**’s road system, especially the roads to the south, to the west, and to the east. He also proposed upgrades to the Caracas–La Guaira road. He designed boats with articulating systems and aquatic trains for rivers to carry heavy loads. During his last years, he worked on public projects in **Ciudad Bolívar**, where he suffered yellow fever.

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MACGILL, SAMUEL (Santiago, Chile, 1877–Madrid, Spain, 1955). Military officer and reformer of the Venezuelan Army. In 1910, **Juan Vicente Gómez** prompted an extensive process of modernization of the **armed forces**, including the inauguration of the Military Academy in **Caracas**. MacGill was appointed as instructor and chosen to develop a plan of organization, training, and modernization of the army, including writing a plan of study. In 1928, he participated in the military uprising against Gómez and in 1929 joined the *Falke Invasion*.

MACHADO, GUSTAVO (Caracas, 1898–Caracas, 1983). Politician. He participated in the student protests against **Juan Vicente Gómez** in 1914, and after being part of a failed plot to overthrow the dictator, he had to go into exile. In France, he became involved with Marxist thought, and in 1920 he attended the founding of the French Communist Party. Once he graduated as a lawyer from the University of Paris, in 1925 he moved to **Cuba**, where he met Julio Antonio Mella and participated in the foundation of the Cuban Communist Party (not to be confused with the Communist Party of Cuba, created in 1965). In 1926, he moved to Mexico and founded the Venezuelan Revolutionary Party (PRV) with other Venezuelan communists. In 1929, he was involved, along with **Rafael Simón Urbina**, in the Assault of Curaçao. In 1931, he returned clandestinely to Venezuela; discovered, he remained in prison until Gómez's death in 1935. In 1937, he was expelled from the country due to his communist affiliation. Once he went back to Venezuela in 1941, he became one of the key leaders of the **Communist Party of Venezuela** (PCV), legalized in 1944. Although he was elected as a deputy in 1948, the military coup of that year sent him back into exile. After **January 23, 1958**, he was elected again as a deputy for the period 1958–1963. During his term, in 1963, Machado was imprisoned again for his party's participation in the *lucha armada*, the guerrilla war against democracy. Free in 1968, he was elected a deputy for two more terms between 1969 and 1979.

MADURO, NICOLÁS (Caracas, 1962–). President of Venezuela since 2013. A descendant of Aruban Sephardic Jews, he began his political activity

during adolescence in **political parties** of communist ideology such as the Liga Socialista. Between 1986 and 1987, he traveled to **Cuba** to study at the Escuela Superior del Partido Comunista Cubano Níco López. After that, in 1991, he became a bus driver in the **Caracas** subway system, where he joined the union as one of its leaders. When **Hugo Chávez** was imprisoned after the coup attempt of **February 4, 1992**, Maduro began to visit him in jail. Once Chávez was released, Maduro joined his project, helping to organize the political movement that led to the presidency in 1998. From then on, he was one of Chávez's closest collaborators, holding high political and administrative positions, such as president of the National Assembly (2005–2006), minister of foreign affairs (2006–2013), and vice president (2013). He held this position when Chávez died, leaving him as president. Shortly before, in his last communication to the country, Chávez asked Venezuelans to vote for Maduro in the next election. Under these terms, Maduro participated in the 2013 election, in which he obtained a controversial triumph (only 1 percent over **Henrique Capriles Radonski**), initially not recognized by the opposition. After this, a period began characterized by political conflict and **economic** crisis as a result of the fall in **oil** prices as well as of the failure of the economic model, **Bolivarian Socialism**, promoted since 2007. In 2014, he had to face a series of riots that sought to remove him from power. In 2015, *chavismo* suffered its worst electoral defeat so far when the opposition won a majority in the National Assembly with almost 60 percent of the seats. At the same time, an economic contraction of almost 20 percent in three years and the collapse of the Venezuelan currency, the **bolívar**, led to a doubling of poverty during his presidency. During 2016, the opposition pushed a referendum to remove him from power by the electoral route. As more than 80 percent of Venezuelans held a negative opinion of Maduro, the chances of achieving this were very high, but through legal procedures the process was suspended. In fact, the scope of action of the National Assembly has been very limited by actions of the Supreme Court of Justice, illegally controlled by the government. The Supreme Court systematically rules against all measures taken by parliament, and when in March 2017 it practically banned the legislature, the maneuver was viewed as a coup d'état. This generated a popular reaction that has led to more than 65 continuous days of protests (as of June 2017). In response, Maduro announced a national constituent assembly with the aim of deepening the socialist model. The call clearly violates the right to universal, direct, and secret vote, which led many to view it as simply another coup attempt. This increased protests, which sometimes turned violent, but Maduro's regime replied with even more violent repression, in clear violation of human rights. As of June 2017, more than 70 have died, with more than 2,000 wounded and hundreds detainee, many of whom are being tried by military courts, an evident violation of their civil rights.

MANRIQUE DE VILLALOBOS, ISABEL (?-?). Governor of **Margarita Island** between 1527 and 1535. She administered the governorship due to the death of his husband, Marcelo Villalobos, who in 1525 obtained it by *capitulación* (a contract between an individual and the king). According to the agreement, the government had to pass to his daughter **Aldonza Villalobos** as soon as she married or when she turned 25. Isabel never exercised governorship directly but through attendants. *See also* MARGARITA (PROVINCE).

MANTUANO. Name given during the colonial period to the members of the white elite families and landowners. The origin of the expression is not known exactly, but conventionally it is believed to come from the *mantillas* (mantles) worn by elite white women as a sign of privilege. *See also* BEJARAMANO SISTERS; *PARDO*.

MANUAL DE CARREÑO. It is a manual on good manners and etiquette published in 1853 in **Caracas** and in New York by **Manuel Antonio Carreño**, *Manual de urbanidad y buenas maneras para la juventud de ambos sexos*, commonly known as *Manual de Carreño*. Its subjects cover personal hygiene, etiquette, and domestic and social behavior. It is probably the most well-known Venezuelan book. With numerous editions throughout the Latin American countries, it has been the most popular such guide on the continent.

MARACAIBO (CITY). Capital of **Zulia State**, it is located in the northwest, with an area of 50,230 square kilometers, not counting parts of **Maracaibo Lake**. It is the second largest city in Venezuela with 2,001,591 inhabitants (2013 census) and one of its main **economic** centers, given its location in the most important **oil** district in Venezuela. It is highly probable that there was an **aboriginal** community with the same name when in 1529 **Ambrosio Alfínger** founded a city that he called Neu-Nürnberg, even though the name Maracaibo was used in Spanish documents. The story of the chieftain Mara being the source of the name is a legend. Neu-Nürnberg was abandoned in 1534. There were several attempts to repopulate it, but these failed due to native resistance. Finally, in 1574, the city was repopulated under the name Nueva Zamora de Maracaibo by the conqueror Pedro Maldonado. Shortly after, it became a strategic port connected to **cocoa** production at the south end of the lake and in the **Andean Region**. Consequently, corsairs attacked it several times. The most famous is the sacking by Henry Morgan in 1669. Nevertheless, the city continued growing in importance. By 1622, it was detached from the **province of Venezuela** and belonged to the *corregimiento* of **Mérida** (a sort of district of lesser rank than a province). The same year it was transformed into a province with the name Provincia de Mérida del Espíritu Santo de Maracaibo, the capital of which became Maracaibo in 1678. From

then, it was known as the **province of Maracaibo**. When the Viceroyalty of Nueva Granada was divided into three military districts (*comandancias*), Maracaibo was attached to **Caracas**. Finally, in 1777, the province was integrated into the **General Captaincy of Venezuela**. In 1810, Maracaibo remained loyal to the Spanish authorities, and in 1812 it was converted into a general captaincy detached from Venezuela. In 1821, its authorities decided to join **Gran Colombia**, and Maracaibo became the capital of one of its departments, **Zulia**. When Gran Colombia was dissolved, it joined the Republic of Venezuela. Beginning in the 1820s, several **commercial houses** settled in Maracaibo, founded by German and Danish merchants. They focused on exporting Venezuelan and Colombian **coffee** to Europe. The exports passed through Maracaibo Lake. This made the city a center of an important geo-historical region and a pole of economic growth and culture. In 1885, it became the first city with electric lighting in Venezuela. But when oil deposits were discovered in neighboring areas, the city experienced its largest transformation. In the 1920s and 1930s, many infrastructure projects were completed, and by 1929 the city had an airport. Oil companies set up offices there to manage operations, as did companies that offered services to them. This brought many workers from the **United States**, the Netherlands, the British Isles, and the Dutch Antilles. Maracaibo turned into a large metropolis. In 1962, with the construction of the **Maracaibo Bridge**, the city was finally connected to the rest of the country. Maracaibo remains today one of the largest economic and cultural centers in Venezuela.

MARACAIBO (PROVINCE). Political-territorial entity that existed from 1676 until 1821, when it became the **department of Zulia** during **Gran Colombia**, and from 1830 until 1864. During the colonial and Gran Colombia periods, the province was integrated with what is currently known as **Zulia State** and the **Andes Region**. After several adjustments, in 1835 it acquired its current limits. In 1864, the Federal Constitution renamed it Zulia State. *See also* MARACAIBO (CITY).

MARACAIBO BRIDGE. Named after General **Rafael Urdaneta**, the local **War of Independence** hero, it is located in **Zulia State**. The bridge, constructed over **Maracaibo Lake**, enabled a road connection between the western and eastern lake coasts. Construction began in 1957 and ended in 1962, making it one of the world's largest bridge structures in the mid-20th century (8,678 meters long). The bridge is a landmark of Venezuela, Zulia State, and the city of **Maracaibo**.

MARACAIBO LAKE. Located in **Zulia State**, in the western part of Venezuela, it covers an area of 13,280 square kilometers. It is the largest natural

lake in the world and one of the oldest, formed 25 million years ago. It is fed from several tributary rivers like the Escalante, Catatumbo, and Santa Ana. It was visited and described in the chronicles of **Alonso de Ojeda** in 1499. It was one of the most prolific oil-producing areas in Venezuela during the 20th century. In the 1960s, a bridge was built to connect both of its sides. Although currently it has serious problems of pollution, the Relámpago del Catatumbo (Catatumbo Lightning), a natural meteorological phenomenon consisting of almost continuous lightning, occurs around 260 nights per year, illuminating the waters of the lake.

MARACAIBO LAKE NAVAL BATTLE (24 September 1823). Military action that took place on the waters of **Maracaibo Lake** and was decisive in the independence of Venezuela. After two hours of hard combat, Admiral José Prudencio Padilla, commander of the republican squadron, defeated the Spaniards. The loss forced Marshal **Francisco Tomás Morales**, the last general captain of Venezuela, to capitulate, handing over all occupied places, garrisons, and ships and evacuating Spanish troops by 5 August 1823. Only the garrison of Puerto Cabello remained in resistance. *See also* ASSAULT OF PUERTO CABELLO.

MARCANO ECHENIQUE, GASPAR (Caracas, 1850–Paris, France, 1910). Physician and ethnologist. He published several papers in reviews like *La France Médicale* and the *Bulletin de la Société Anatomique de Paris*. As a **medic**, he specialized in the study of cancer, hematology, leprosy, and STDs. He invented the hemostereometer, a device for measuring blood sedimentation in the body. In the field of ethnology, he is well known for writing *Ethnographie Précolombienne du Vénézuéla* (1889–1891), one of the first books on the subject written by a Venezuelan. *See also* SCIENCE.

MARCANO ECHENIQUE, VICENTE (Caracas, 1848–Valencia, 1891). **Engineer**, chemist, geologist, and spelunker. As a researcher, his main focus was on the fermentation of tropical fruits, as can be read in his work *Sobre la formación de las sierras nitradas en las regiones tropicales* (1885). Among other discoveries, he found bromelain, an enzyme extracted from pineapples. His ethnological work was helpful to his brother **Gaspar Marcano**. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

MARGARITA (PROVINCE). Political-territorial entity existing from 1525 to 1864. Formed by **Margarita Island**, it had the peculiarity of being governed from 1526 to 1575 by two **women**, **Isabel Manrique** and **Aldonza Villalobos Manrique**, widow and daughter of Pedro Villalobos, to whom Emperor Charles V gave the province for the span of two lives (his and his

descendants'). In 1561, it was occupied by **Lope de Aguirre**. During the 17th and 18th centuries, Margarita was the scene of battles with Dutch and French corsairs in the conflicts over control of the Caribbean. The province was part of Santo Domingo until it was integrated into the Viceroyalty of Nueva Granada and finally the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** (1777). On 4 May 1819, a junta was formed with autonomy from Spain, starting one of the bloodiest conflicts of the **War of Independence**. The local warlord **Juan Bautista Arismendi** was able to liberate the island when royalist forces occupied the rest of Venezuela. Consequently, **Simón Bolívar** reorganized the **Third Republic** in the village of Santa Ana in 1816, the year in which the province became Nueva Esparta, in recognition of the bravery of its people. With the Federal Constitution of 1864, it became **Nueva Esparta State**. *See also* CUBAGUA

MARGARITA ISLAND. Located in the Caribbean Sea, it is the largest of the Venezuelan **islands** with an area of 1,071 square kilometers. With the islands Coche and **Cubagua**, it was integrated into **Nueva Esparta State**. Occupied by the Guaqueríes **aboriginal** tribe, it was discovered by **Christopher Columbus** in 1498. Explorers **Pedro Alonso Niño** and Cristóbal Guerra named Margarita due to the abundance of pearls (*margarita* means “pearl” in Latin). With an arid climate not suitable for **agriculture**, its main **economic** activity was for a long time fishing, which allowed it to develop a strong sea-based culture. Nevertheless, the scarcity of resources made the island a place of low **population**, a situation that became even more dramatic with the onset of the **oil** industry in the first decades of the 20th century, as many inhabitants migrated to the oil fields. The situation started to change when the island was declared a duty-free zone in 1975. Since then, tourism has gained importance and become the largest source of income. Margarita is a relatively important tourist destination in the Caribbean, with local, Latin American, and European travelers. It is considered to have some of the best beaches for windsurfing in the world, receiving some 100,000 tourists per year.

MARÍA DE SAN JOSÉ, MOTHER (Choroní, 1875–Maracay, 1967). **Religious**, first Venezuelan elevated to the altars, and founder of a congregation of Augustinian Recollect sisters. She had a special dedication to the elderly and poor children. Born Laura Alvarado Cardozo, in 1897 she started working as a volunteer at the San José Hospital in **Maracay**, and in 1901 she was consecrated as a sister. In 1950, the congregation of San José was migrated to the Order of Augustinian Recollects and in 1952 gained pontifical rights. On 7 May 1995, Pope John Paul II consecrated her as blessed.

MARÍA LIONZA. Female deity who features at the center of a rite widely diffused in Venezuela. First originating in **indigenous** religiosity, the rite of Lionza has become very mixed. It first came from the Mountain of Sorte, in **Yaracuy State**, which is now a pilgrimage site. Popularized in the middle of the 20th century, it began to enrich itself with other factors, being largely a manifestation of racial mixture and the national imaginary. The pantheon used is formed of several groups: the black court, made up of African ancestor spirits; the India, consisting of Indian chiefs who resisted the conquest; the heavenly court, with Catholic saints; the court of the Liberators, with the spirits of the heroes of independence; the court of *calé* or *malandra*, formed by dead delinquents; and so on. In all cases, representations flow from the official culture of the state and the elites and have become popularly reinterpreted. The rite also has a clear influence in the spiritism that arrived in the country in the middle of the 19th century. Recently, it has been heavily influenced by the arrival of the Caribbean religion known as Santería. *See also* RELIGION.

MARIÑO, SANTIAGO (Valle del Espíritu Santo, 1788–La Victoria, 1854). Politician and military officer. He was one of the most important leaders of Venezuelan independence. He is known as the Liberator of the **Oriente** (east region). From a family of planters, he spent his childhood in Trinidad, which in 1797 passed to British control. By the time of the **War of Independence**, he was in **Cumaná** as a commissioner of the British governor of the island. He joined the patriot army but in 1812, with the fall of the **First Republic**, returned to Trinidad. During the time **Simón Bolívar** was completing the **Campana Admirable** to gain **Caracas**, Mariño organized a small force and in January 1813 started the **Campana de Oriente**, invading eastern Venezuela and liberating the region, which he governed independently. In the historiography, his territory is known as the Estado de Oriente (State of the East). In 1814, he was defeated, along with Bolívar, by **José Tomás Boves** in the Battle of La Puerta. Having to flee to the east, in Carúpano he was deposed, with Bolívar, by **José Félix Ribas** and **Manuel Carlos Piar**. He went into exile to the Antilles, returning to the country with the **Los Cayos Expedition**. From then, he participated in various military actions, developing a rivalry with Bolívar. In 1817, in the so-called Congress of Cariaco, he tried to form a triumvirate with the Libertador and Father **José Cortés Madariaga**. When that project failed, he continued his political and military career. In 1821, he participated in the **Carabobo Battle** as chief of the general staff of the liberating army. In 1826, he supported the secessionist rebellion of **La Cusiata**, and in 1830, once Venezuela was separated, he

became secretary of war and navy in the government of **José Antonio Páez**. In 1835, he led the **Revolución de las Reformas** against the government of **José María Vargas**. He was expelled from the country until 1848. In the following years, he remained retired from public life. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

MARQUÉS DEL TORO. *See* RODRÍGUEZ DEL TORO, FRANCISCO.

MÁRQUEZ BUSTILLOS, VICTORINO (Guanare, 1858–Caracas, 1941). Lawyer and politician, provisional president of Venezuela from 1914 to 1922. A close collaborator in **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s regime, he held the positions of minister of war and navy, governor of the **Distrito Federal**, and president of **Trujillo State**. He was appointed provisional president in 1914, while Gómez, the real person in charge, remained as elect president and **army** commander. During his provisional government, important fiscal and tax reforms took place, led by **Roman Cardenas**, along with the issuing of civil and commercial **laws**, paving the way toward the full payment of **external debt** and sustaining the effort to build **roads**.

MARRERO, BALTASAR DE LOS REYES (Caracas, 1752–Caracas, 1809). Professor and priest. He graduated in philosophy in 1773 and a year after he earned a doctorate in theology. He contributed to the renovation of intellectual life at the **Universidad de Caracas** by introducing new philosophical authors like Condillac, Locke, Leibniz, and Bacon and sharing the **scientific** principles of Newton and Kepler. For all of that, he is considered the precursor of modern philosophy in Venezuela and an important renovator of the Venezuelan colonial academy.

MARTÍ, MARIANO (Bráfim, Spain, 1721–Caracas, 1792). Bishop and voyager. Between 1761 and 1769, he was bishop of Puerto Rico, which included the eastern part of Venezuela (**Cumaná**, **Barcelona**, **Margarita Island**, and **Guayana**), and between 1770 and 1792, he was bishop of Venezuela. During his bishopric, he made vast and detailed pastoral visits, including to almost every part of the Venezuelan territory, with the exception of the **llanos** of **Barinas** and the **Andean Region**. During his travels, he took numerous notes on ethnology, demographics, and social behaviors, later compiled in the significant book *Documentos relativos a su visita pastoral de la diócesis de Caracas, 1771–1784*. The volume is an essential source on the final days of Venezuelan colonial life. *See also* ARCHBISHOPRIC OF VENEZUELA; CATHOLIC CHURCH.

MARTÍNEZ, LEONCIO “LEO” (Caracas, 1888–Caracas, 1941). Humorist, caricaturist, **journalist**, poet, and dramatist. A regular contributor in *El Cojo Ilustrado*, in 1912 he joined the **Círculo de Bellas Artes**. In 1923, he founded the weekly *Fantoches*, a popular graphic humor **newspaper** where Leo became famous for his cartoons of local characters full of social criticism. He adapted Pinocchio to the local reality or used other popular characters like the Duque de Rocanegra. He also wrote stories in the naturalist style. Due to his opposition to the regime, he went into exile several times during **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s government. Once Gomez passed away, he was one of the key voices in the political debates on democratization, becoming one of the most severe critics of anti-imperialism, fascism, and the **Catholic Church**.

MATA, ANDRÉS (Carúpano, 1870–Paris, France, 1931). Poet, editor, and diplomat. A close participant in **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s regime, in 1908 he founded the **newspaper** *El Universal*, which along with *El Nacional* became one of the two preeminent newspapers in Venezuela.

MATHEMATICS ACADEMY OF CARACAS. Educational institution founded in 1831 under the direction of **Juan Manuel Cajigal**, with the aim of giving proper training to **engineers** and artillery officers. Cajigal’s program was a three-biennium project, and the students graduated as surveyor, engineer, or artillery officer. In 1872, the academy was suppressed and its courses passed to the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, becoming the Faculty of Engineering. *See also* SCIENCE.

MATOS, MANUEL ANTONIO (Puerto Cabello, 1847–Paris, France, 1929). Banker, merchant, politician, and diplomat. After studying in Europe and the **United States**, he started his **business** life by founding the **commercial house** M. A. Matos and Co. Related to **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** (their wives were sisters), he was a key figure during his governments. Matos founded two of the oldest and most important **banks** in Venezuela: Banco de Venezuela (1890) and Banco Caracas (1890). In opposition to **Cipriano Castro**, he led the **Revolución Libertadora**, funding the revolution in part with his own capital. Defeated by Castro, he went into exile in Paris, returning during **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s government and serving as foreign affairs minister. *See also* NEW YORK AND BERMUDEZ COMPANY.

MAYZ VALLENILLA, ERNESTO (Maracaibo, 1925–Caracas, 2015). Philosopher and founder and rector of the Universidad **Simón Bolívar** (1970) of **Caracas**, one of the most important universities in the country. After studying in Venezuela and Germany, where he was a pupil of Martin

Heidegger, he devoted himself entirely to university research and teaching. Of his many works, *Fenomenología del Conocimiento* (1956), *Ontología del conocimiento* (1960), *Esbozo de una crítica de la razón técnica* (1974), and *Ratio Technica* (1983) are worth highlighting. He initially supported **Hugo Chávez**, being a member of the Constituent Presidential Commission. At the end of his life, however, he disassociated himself from the *chavista* project. Mayz is considered one of the most important philosophers of Venezuela.

MEDICINE. *See* HEALTH.

MEDINA ANGARITA, ISAÍAS (San Cristobal, 1897–Caracas, 1953). Military officer and politician, president between 1941 and 1945. At the age of 15, he went to **Caracas** and entered the Military Academy. During his career, he worked in several administrative positions. In 1936, President **Eleazar López Contreras** promoted him to minister of war. In 1941, he was elected president for the period supposed to end in 1946. During his administration, several actions promoted a transition to a democratic regime. He legalized the **Communist Party of Venezuela** and **Acción Democrática** and allowed them to participate in political life without any kind of repression. There was a wider liberty of the press, and there were no political prisoners. In 1942, the Income Taxes **Law** was promoted, the first in the country, and a year later a new Hydrocarbons Law was proclaimed, which gave the government more income to develop its policies. Both laws also permitted to organize the relationship with **oil concession** companies. Nonetheless, there was a major aspiration in civil society that was not fulfilled: the implementation of the universal, direct, and secret vote for the election of the next president. This refusal, along with some disagreement in the military sectors, especially from young officers, was in the eyes of historians the cause of his downfall. On **October 18, 1945**, a coup overthrew him and sent him into exile in the **United States**. There he suffered a severe illness. **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**'s regime finally allowed him to return to Venezuela to die a year later. *See also* PARTIDO DEMOCRÁTICO VENEZOLANO.

MÉNDEZ, CONNY (Caracas, 1898–Miami, United States, 1979). Writer, composer, caricaturist, and actress. Born as Juana María de la Concepción Méndez Guzmán, she was the daughter of the poet Eugenio Méndez y Mendoza and studied fine **arts** and **music** in New York. Upon her return to **Caracas**, she started a career as a columnist in several **newspapers** and magazines with humor and *costumbristas* articles. In 1931, she compiled her caricatures into the book *Bisturi: album de caricaturas*. At the same time, she composed numerous themes to typical Venezuelan music, such as “Venezuela habla cantando” and “Chucho y Ceferina,” which brought her fame. Nonetheless,

today she is mostly remembered as the founder of the New Thought in Venezuela. She was a disciple of Emmet Fox, leader of the Church of Divine Science. Inspired by his teachings, in 1945 she founded the Saint Germain Brotherhood in Caracas, and in 1946 the Movement of the Christian Metaphysic. Her books about this topic, *Metafísica al alcance de todos* (1977) and *Misterios develados* (1979), were best sellers in Latin America. In 1955, Méndez published *Memorias de una loca*, her autobiography.

MÉNDEZ, RAMÓN IGNACIO (Barinas, 1775–Bogotá, Colombia, 1839). Priest, lawyer, and politician; third **archbishop** of Caracas and Venezuela. He studied philosophy and theology at the **University of Caracas**. In 1797, he was ordained as a priest. In 1800, he received his doctorate in civil law. In 1801, he was named lieutenant vicar of **Barinas** and in 1803 general vicar of **Mérida**. Between 1805 and 1809, he was rector of the Seminary of San Buenaventura. After the success of **April 19, 1810**, he was appointed a deputy for Guasdalito to the **Congress of 1811**, and as its vice president he signed the Act of Independence. In 1812, he was imprisoned as a consequence of the fall of the **First Republic**. After his release in 1813, he actively participated in the **Campaña Admirable**. Between 1814 and 1816, he was in the *llanos* next to **José Antonio Páez**. In 1819, he represented Barinas State in the **Angostura Congress**, and in 1821 he participated in the Constituent Congress of Cúcuta. In 1823, he was elected a senator for the Congress of **Gran Colombia**. In 1827, he was named archbishop of Caracas by Pope Leo XII, but his rejection of the Ecclesiastical Patronage Law from 1824 and the dissolution of Gran Colombia in 1830 led him to exile. In December 1942, his remains were transferred to the **National Pantheon** in Caracas.

MENDOZA, CRISTÓBAL (Trujillo, 1772–Caracas, 1829). First president of Venezuela in 1811; historian, **journalist**, and law specialist. In 1810, he joined from **Barinas** the movement that took place in **Caracas** on **April 19**. On 5 May 1811, the Congress offered him the head of the executive triumvirate with **Juan de Escalona** and **Baltasar Padrón**. There was a weekly rotation of the presidency. In 1812, he was reelected to another triumvirate. With the fall of the **First Republic**, he fled to Nueva Granada. In 1821, he returned to Caracas and served **Simón Bolívar** in several charges of justice. From that time, he started his labor as a historian, from which came one of his most important texts, along with **Francisco Javier Yanes**: *Colección de documentos relativos a la vida pública del Libertador* in 22 volumes.

MENDOZA FLEURY, LORENZO (Caracas, 1897–Caracas, 1969). Lawyer, **businessman**, philanthropist, and diplomat. In 1941, he founded Polar Brewery (later **Empresas Polar**), diversifying later in consumer goods

and becoming one of the largest **economic** groups in Venezuela. *See also* MENDOZA GIMÉNEZ, LORENZO.

MENDOZA GIMÉNEZ, LORENZO (Caracas, 1965–). **Businessman** and leader of **Empresas Polar**. After graduating from the Sloan School of Management at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in 1992 he assumed the presidency of the family-owned conglomerate founded in 1941 by his grandfather **Lorenzo Mendoza Fleury**. Despite having had to face a hard **economic** context and, since the arrival of **Hugo Chávez** to power, a very adverse political time, under his direction Polar Group has been able to expand in diverse areas. The company has grown in its traditional field of foods with the purchase of the Mavesa Company, as well as in new sectors such as petroleum and petrochemicals. It has also achieved internationalization, establishing plants in **Colombia**, Mexico, and the **United States**. However, Polar has been accused of causing many of the country's economic problems by the governments of Chávez and **Nicolás Maduro**, who see the conglomerate as a capitalist monopoly. This has meant constant supervision, requisition, confiscation of premises, obstacles to import, and even imprisonment of managers. As an unintended consequence of these policies, Mendoza has gained increasing popularity among opponents of the government, to the point that he appears in polls among presidential favorites. Mendoza's estate is estimated at \$1.5 billion; in 2016, he occupied the 1198th position in the *Forbes* list of the world's richest people.

MENDOZA GOITICOA, EUGENIO (Caracas, 1906–Caracas, 1979). Entrepreneur, philanthropist, and politician. He was the leading man of **business** and industry of his time. In the 1930s, he founded Grupo Mendoza, until the 1980s the largest **economic** group in Venezuela, with diversified activities in cement production, building materials, **banking**, vehicle assembly and distribution, paper, paints, and **agricultural** products. Between 1942 and 1943, he was minister of development during **Isaías Medina Angarita's** administration. On **January 23, 1958**, he was appointed a member of the civil–military junta formed after the ousting of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. In 1944, he was among the promoters of **FEDECÁMARAS**. Considered the pioneer of corporate social responsibility in Venezuela, in 1942 he founded Fundación Venezolana contra la Parálisis Infantil, the first private foundation in Venezuela. From there he started a group of charity organizations (such as Hospital Ortopédico Infantil and Dividendo Voluntario para la Comunidad) later coordinated by Fundación Mendoza (1951). He also promoted the Universidad Metropolitana of Caracas.

MENE GRANDE OIL COMPANY. Subsidiary of U.S. **oil** multinational Gulf Petroleum Corporation. Gulf started operations in Venezuela in 1925, exploring and producing oil in concessions in western and eastern Venezuela. In the 1930s, Mene Grande became the third largest oil producer in Venezuela, after **Standard Oil** of New Jersey and Royal Dutch **Shell**. In 1937, the company successfully found a large light oil reservoir in the Oficina area, close to **El Tigre, Anzoátegui State**, which had a substantially higher value of oil than that found elsewhere in Venezuela. As Mene Grande's oil would jeopardize oil markets, Standard Oil of New Jersey bought out 50 percent of Mene Grande from Gulf and gained full control of its exploration and production operations. Then Standard Oil sold half of its participation to Shell. Mene Grande continued operating in Venezuela and set up a large refining facility in the 1950s in eastern Venezuela (near Puerto La Cruz, Anzoátegui State), managed by the Gulf Refining Corporation. In 1965, Mene Grande became the first oil multinational to appoint a Venezuelan executive as its president in Venezuela, Luis Alcalá Sucre. It continued operating in Venezuela until 1975, when the **oil nationalization** took place and its assets and personnel became part of **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.** See also **OIL CONCESSIONS**.

MENESES, GUILLERMO (Caracas, 1918–Porlamar, 1989). Writer and lawyer, winner of the National Prize for **Literature** in 1967. He marked a milestone in the history of national literature thanks to two main works: his tale “La mano contra el muro” (1951), which won the *El Nacional newspaper* short tale contest, and the novel *El falso cuaderno de Narciso Espejo* (1953), which won the **Aristides Rojas Award**. Although he did not subscribe to any avant-garde movement in Venezuela, his books showed innovation in the construction of both structure and characters, leaving behind the tradition of regionalist narrative born in the 19th century. He was married to **Sofía Imber**.

MÉRIDA (CITY). Capital of **Mérida State**, with an area of 803 square kilometers and 330,287 inhabitants (2013). Founded in 1558 by **Juan Rodríguez Suárez**, who came looking for **mines** in the region, the first settlement occurred in the **aboriginal** village of Jamuén but shortly was moved to its current location in the site named Tatuy by the aborigines. Until 1607, the city was part of the *corregimiento* of Tunja (a rural district lower than a province), but that year the *corregimiento* of Mérida was created. In 1622, the *corregimiento* was elevated to a province. In 1676, the city of **Maracaibo** was incorporated into this jurisdiction, which became the province of Mérida del Espíritu Santo de Maracaibo. From 1678, the governors started to reside in

Maracaibo, and the province started to be known as the **Maracaibo Province** and the city of Mérida as Mérida de Maracaibo, to differentiate it from other locations with the same name in Spain and Mexico. In 1778, the Bishopric of Mérida was created, and in 1785 the Seminary of San Buenaventura started, bringing the higher studies that would later mark Mérida as a typical **university** city. In 1810, an autonomous junta was created, starting the independence process in the region. This junta enacted two transcendental measures: secession from Maracaibo to form a separated province, and the foundation of a university. Even though some lectures were given in the colony and a request for a university was made to the Spanish Crown in 1806, the University of Mérida (today Universidad de Los Andes) is considered the first republican university in Latin America. In 1813, **Simón Bolívar** received for the first time the title of *Libertador* in this city. The production of **coffee** during the 19th century developed the **economy** and grew the population. When the coffee-based economy entered into a crisis in the beginning of the 20th century, the city stagnated. With the expansion of the Universidad de Los Andes and the development of tourism in the 1950s, the city resumed its growth. Located at the foot of **Pico Bolívar**, the highest peak in Venezuela (4,978 meters above sea level), it possesses as one of its main attractions a cable car, inaugurated in 1960, the longest in the world at 12.5 kilometers.

MÉRIDA (PROVINCE). Political-territorial entity existing between 1622 and 1678, 1810 and 1821, and 1830 and 1863. It originated in the change of status of the *corregimiento* of Mérida to a province. In 1676, the jurisdiction of the city of **Maracaibo** was added and renamed the province of Mérida del Espíritu Santo de Maracaibo; nevertheless, with the settlement of the governor in Maracaibo, it was known as the **province of Maracaibo**. In 1810, a junta formed in the city of **Mérida** decreed the separation of Mérida and the reinstitution of the province. During the period of **Gran Colombia**, the province was integrated into the department of **Zulia**, to regain its autonomy in 1830. In 1863, it was converted into **Mérida State**.

MÉRIDA (STATE). Part of the **Andes Region**, its capital is the city of **Mérida**. It has an area of 11,300 square kilometers (1.23 percent of the country) and a **population** of 828,592 (2011 census, 2.86 percent of the country), divided among 23 municipalities and 82 parishes. Mérida's landscape is formed of the Andean cordillera, two mountain ranges (Sierra Nevada and Sierra de La Culata), the Chamas depression, the Andean piedmont, and plains. Mérida has adequate soil **agricultural** activities, industries, nonmetallic minerals, and fish farming. The state was created in 1863 during **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**'s presidency. A year later, it was integrated along with

Táchira into **Zulia State** until 1869. From 1881 to 1899, it was part of the Great State of Los Andes.

"MI DELIRIO SOBRE EL CHIMBORAZO." Although there is no precise information about this text, it is said to be written by **Simón Bolívar** in 1822, when he visited that zone, located in Ecuador. For some critics, it is a prose poem that initiates the romantic aesthetic in national **literature**.

MICHELENA, ARTURO (Valencia, 1863–Caracas, 1898). Painter. Born to a family of artists (his father and his mother's father were also painters), he worked early as an illustrator. In 1885, he received a scholarship and went to Paris to complete his studies. There he was given awards twice: once in 1887 at Le Salon des Artistes Français with a second-class medal for the painting *L'Enfant Malade* (The Sick Child), and in 1889 at the Paris Universal Exposition with a gold medal for *Charlotte Corday*. His painting *Miranda en La Carraca* (1896) is considered a masterpiece of Venezuelan **art** and a symbol of Venezuela's identity. In 1948, his remains were buried at the **National Pantheon**.

MICHELENA, SANTOS (Maracay, 1797–Caracas, 1848). Politician. During the **War of Independence**, he was wounded and imprisoned and exchanged prison for exile. He returned in 1821 after six years in the **United States**, where he studied **economics**. Once Venezuela separated from **Gran Colombia**, he filled a variety of public positions, being the ideologist of the liberal economic reforms that characterized the first years of the republic. He was the negotiator of the **boundaries** with **Colombia**, which led to the famous Michelena–Pombo Limits Treaty in 1833. He died of a wound received during the assault on the National Congress on **January 24, 1848**.

MIGUEL, "EL NEGRO" (Puerto Rico, ?–Barquisimeto, 1553). Slave and maroon leader, also known as Rey Miguel (King Miguel). Between 1552 and 1553, he led a rebellion against the Spaniards in the **mines** of Buría, discovered in the mountains close to **Barquisimeto**. He was a slave brought from Puerto Rico to work in the mine. However, he managed to escape with other slaves and created a kingdom of maroons. He proclaimed himself king and crowned his wife, Giomar, as queen. In addition, he appointed as bishop one of his followers and reproduced Spanish institutions. The maroon kingdom fought the Spaniards successfully and even in 1553 attacked the city of Barquisimeto. However, the conquistadors, commanded by Diego García Paredes, Diego Fernández de Serpa, and **Diego de Losada**, defeated the attack. Miguel was killed during the fight. After that, he became a legend

among the **Afro-Venezuelan** people of the region, who even believed that his soul lives in the mountains where he once reigned, and is worshiped in that local **religion**. Likewise, today he is a symbol of African resistance in Venezuela.

MILITARY DICTATORSHIP (1948–1958). Name given to the dictatorship exerted by the **armed forces** from 1948 to 1958. Also known as the military decade, it started on 24 November 1948, when a group of young officers succeeded in a coup d'état against the democratically elected President **Rómulo Gallegos**, a member of **Acción Democrática (AD)**. These officers, jointly with AD, had ousted President **Isaías Medina Angarita** three years earlier, on **October 18, 1945**, to open the short democratic interlude of the **Trienio** (1945–1948). In 1948, the officers rebelled against AD, forming a military junta led by **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**, **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, and **Luis Felipe Llovera Páez**, in power until 1950. Even though AD and the **Communist Party of Venezuela** were banned, some freedom was allowed during the period. After the assassination of Delgado in 1950, the junta was renamed the Government Board. Even though the civilian **Germán Suárez Flamerich** was appointed as its president until 1952, the key government role was played by Pérez Jiménez. In 1952, the results of an electoral consultation to convene a constitutional assembly gave victory to **Unión Republicana Democrática**, and **Jóvito Villalba** was the most voted candidate. But the results were not recognized, and Pérez Jiménez assumed the presidency, holding it until his ouster in 1958. During the decade 1948–1958, Venezuela experienced substantial **economic** growth as the country consolidated as one of the largest **oil** producers and exporters in the world. This allowed for the modernization project named Nuevo Ideal Nacional, based on a policy of building public infrastructure and attracting European immigration to implement a racial whitening of the **population**. Both policies had a great impact on Venezuelan society, changing dramatically the landscape of many cities with emblematic buildings, and making Venezuela a country of immigration. In addition, a fast-paced process of urbanization triggered an exodus from rural areas to the cities. Nevertheless, it was a period with substantial violations of human rights, which included the torture and assassination of opposition leaders. *See also* SEGURIDAD NACIONAL; VALLENILLA PLANCHART, LAUREANO.

MINING. During the colonial period, mining in Venezuela was limited to **gold** and copper. Later, exploitation of coal deposits took place in the current states of **Falcón** and **Zulia**, but in an incipient way. During the 18th century, Capuchin friars extracted small quantities of **iron** in the **Guayana Province**,

while the first quantities of gold were obtained from **aborigines**. Mining activities started in the 16th century with the **Welsers** in the northwest of the **Venezuela Province**. At the end of the 17th century, the exploitation of mines at Buría (in current **Lara State**) produced gold, but in small quantities compared with other places in Latin America. By the end of the 17th century, these mines were almost depleted. The production and exploitation of copper corresponds to the 17th century, and the main deposits were located in current **Tachira State**. The copper known as “Copper from Caracas” was of excellent quality. During most of the 19th century, Venezuela was not considered a mining country, yet the exploitation of gold deposits in current **Bolívar State** started around the town of El Callao. By the end of the 19th century, asphalt, coal, and oil were being exploited. In addition to oil, the 20th century marks the beginning of exploitation of diamonds, magnesite, lead, nickel, and zinc. Until the 2000s, private companies along with state-owned companies took part in the mining **business**, but the **Hugo Chávez** regime put all these operations under state control, confiscating assets and turning them into highly politicized companies and sources of corruption.

MIRANDA (STATE). Located in the north of the country, it has an area of 7,950 square kilometers (0.87 percent of the country) and a **population** of 2,675,165 (2011 census, 9.24 percent of the country), divided among 21 municipalities and 55 parishes. The capital is Los Teques. Some of its most populated municipalities are part of the **Distrito Capital** and include the metropolitan area of **Caracas**. In other cases, even though not part of the capital, they are satellite cities of Caracas, making up part of Gran Caracas. The Sucre municipality, the capital of which is Petare, with 500,000 inhabitants is considered the largest barrio in the world. On the other hand, the municipality of Chacao is one of the wealthiest in Venezuela, with financial institutions and upscale residential and commercial areas. Miranda State is the result of the partition of the **province of Caracas** in 1864, when the **Distrito Federal** was created, incorporating only Caracas and its neighboring towns. The rest of the province was renamed Bolívar State (not to be mistaken with the current **Bolívar State**). In 1909, it was named Miranda. This state has various microregions, for instance, the Altos Mirandinos, where Los Teques is located, as well as Barlovento and Valles del Tuy, where the Caracas landlords had **cocoa** plantations and **slaves** during the colonial period. This generated a rich **Afro** culture whose expressions have been valued across the world. In fact, the UN declared the Diablos Danzantes de Yare (Dancing Devils of Yare) and the Parranda de San Pedro (local musical ensemble of San Pedro) part of human heritage. Miranda includes 1,677.11 square kilometers of national park lands, including **Ávila Mountain**, Guatopo, and the Tacarigua lagoon.

Economic activities in the state mostly involve production, industries, and companies but also some **agriculture** and cattle raising.

MIRANDA, FRANCISCO DE (Caracas, 1750–Cádiz, Spain, 1816).

Military officer and politician, dictator of Venezuela in 1812. Known as a precursor to independence in Spanish America due to the importance of his efforts to generate emancipatory revolution, in 1806 he undertook two failed expeditions to the Venezuelan coast and in 1811 was a key factor in declaring independence. He also created a vast international conspiracy network that directly influenced the formation of important men such as **Simón Bolívar**, **Andrés Bello**, and Bernardo O'Higgins. He created the tricolor flag that Venezuela, **Colombia**, and Ecuador currently use. He was also the coiner of the word *Colombia*. He participated in the Revolutionary War in the **United States** and in the French Revolution, for which he is considered an emblematic man of the era of the Atlantic revolutions. He was the son of a shopkeeper from the Canary Islands. After obtaining his bachelor's degree at the **Universidad de Caracas**, he went to Spain to start a military career. He participated in the defense of Melilla against Moroccan troops and in the Spanish expedition to Algeria (1774–1775). Then he was sent to **Cuba** and was among the Spanish troops that supported the independence of the United States, distinguishing themselves in the recapturing of Pensacola, Florida. Then he ascended to the rank of lieutenant colonel (1781). A year later, he was part of the expedition that attacked the islands of the Bahamas. The American experience was essential to his ideological formation, demonstrating the possibility of an American nation becoming independent and adopting a republican and democratic government. In 1783, he was imprisoned under accusations of espionage for the English, which was never proven. Everything indicates that he was a victim of the intrigues between General Juan Manuel Cajigal (not to be confused with the Venezuelan mathematician, who was his relative), his protector, and political rivals. He fled to the United States, and from then on he dedicated his life to the independence of Spanish America. As a typical representative of Enlightenment thought, he tried to learn about all possible fields, from classical languages to **science** and **music**. He traveled for four years throughout Europe (1785–1789), drafting his famous *Diario* (Diary), an extraordinary source on the gaze of an illustrious Latin American on the old continent. These trips allowed him to establish contacts with very important people of that time, such as the Russian Catherine II, and seek support for his revolutionary project. In 1789, he settled in London, where he focused his strategy on trying to convince the English government of the convenience of an independent Latin America for their commercial interests. At that time, he began to call the American continent "Colombia," probably inspired by the

word *Columbia* that in North America was given to the New World, coming from the last name of **Christopher Columbus**. In London, he was assigned financial aid and served as a kind of adviser on Spanish American issues, supported by his great library and by the network he had created with other people from Spanish America disaffected with the regime. This pension confirmed to his adversaries that he was simply a British agent. Facing a lack of prospects for his plans, in 1792 he went to France to seek support from the revolutionary government. However, he arrived at a bad time: the European monarchies attacked the French Revolution, whereas in the Caribbean the young republic had to face a wide **slave** rebellion. Miranda's project had to wait again. He enrolled in the French Army, standing out in the victory of Valmy (1792). He was promoted to general and was offered the position of governor of Saint Domingue, which was right against his plans: they wanted to send him as a colonialist general to suppress a revolution when he wanted to promote independence. However, everything changed when his superior, Charles Dumouriez, made his famous betrayal. Pulled into the scandal, Miranda was imprisoned in the middle of the Jacobin terror (1793). He managed to get out of the trial and ended up returning to London. There, with several Latin Americans, he organized the Lautaro Lodge, a Masonic institution (and for many people only an outside organization of the Masons) in which he tried to coordinate the efforts of several Latin Americans with revolutionary ideas who lived in Europe. One of them was Bernardo O'Higgins. Meanwhile, in 1800, he married his housekeeper, Sarah Andrews, with whom he had two children, Leandro and Francisco. At that time, he elaborated his constitutional project to govern Colombia, and he had already assembled a large archive, which he called *Colombeia*, and his famous library of Latin American themes. He continued to seek support for independence, unsuccessfully. Due to this, he moved to New York in 1805 and from there decided to organize an expedition on his own. Probably, his relations made him overestimate the support he had in America, believing that landing at a certain point would unleash a revolution. In February 1806, he left New York on the schooner *Leander*, and two other ships and 200 men joined him in Haiti. He took Aruba on 9 April and from there traveled to Venezuela. But the Spanish authorities were aware of the expedition and intercepted it in front of Ocumare on the 27th. Two schooners were captured, along with 60 of the men, many of whom were executed. With the ship that remained, he took refuge in **Trinidad**. From there, he embarked on a second expedition that landed at La Vela de **Coro** on 3 August. He took the city only to find it abandoned by its inhabitants. The population was fearful of the revolutionary leader due to governmental propaganda. On the 13th of the same month, without having succeeded in lighting the fire of revolution, he returned to

Great Britain. Despite the failure of the expeditions, however, the tricolor flag that he created survived. It was with the formation of the **Caracas Supreme Junta** in 1810 that he was given another opportunity to return to America. The arrival in London of the delegates Simón Bolívar, Andrés Bello, and Luis López Méndez allowed him to enter into contact with the newly established autonomous government in Venezuela. At the urging of Bolívar, who became fascinated by his personality, he returned to his homeland in December of that year. Already in Caracas, he became an active propagandist of absolute independence, organizing a revolutionary club called the Patriotic Society. He was elected a deputy to the **Congress of 1811** and became one of the signers of the Act of Independence. The new republic assumed his flag. When civil war broke out with the regions loyal to Spain, he directed the capture of **Valencia**. Later, when the captain of a frigate, **Domingo Monteverde**, advanced victoriously toward Caracas, the Congress named Miranda dictator and *generalísimo* (which is another term for commander-in-chief) of the armies to save the **First Republic** (1812). Even though Miranda could not complete the enormous task, he avoided defeat and in July 1812 signed the **Capitulation of San Mateo** with Monteverde. He was about to leave for Europe when he was arrested by a group of young officers, including Bolívar, who accused him of treason for having stopped fighting. The details of the arrest continue to generate controversy, but the fact is that he was imprisoned in La Guaira when the royalists took the port. Ignoring the terms of the capitulation, he was sent as a prisoner to Puerto Rico and finally to the arsenal of La Carraca in Cádiz, Spain. There Miranda spent four years in which he made numerous attempts to recover his freedom, but in 1816 he died a victim of a plague.

MISIONES. The so-called Misiones (not to be confused with **missions**) were social programs implemented by the **Hugo Chávez** regime to provide **health** care, food, housing, and **education** to the low-income **population**. Starting in 2003, after the **April 11, 2002, events** and on the eve of the recall referendum of 2004, they were implemented with logistical and human support from **Cuba**, which exchanged its services for **oil**. The Misiones, funded directly by **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.**, massively leveraged the surge in oil prices from mid-2003, lifting Chávez's popularity. The new system substituted the traditional compensatory programs.

MISS VENEZUELA. National beauty contest. The quality of its exponents is so high that it has made Venezuela the country with the highest number of Miss Worlds (six: 1955, 1981, 1984, 1991, 1995, and 2011). At Miss Universe, it is second after the **United States** (winning five times: 1979, 1981, 1986, 1996, 2008, and 2009), being the first nation to win two years in a row.

Over time, it has become one of the most prestigious institutions in Venezuela, which it considers a key element of its identity, being “the land of beautiful **women**.” In fact, the success of Venezuelan beauty queens (“misses” in the jargon of the country) has made Venezuela associated abroad with beauty. Founded in 1952 by Pan-American Airways, the contest was created with the purpose of finding a Venezuelan woman in California to compete in the Miss Universe pageant. In 1955, the company sold its legal rights to the contest to Edwin E. Acosta Rubio. That year, **Susana Duijm** was crowned as Miss World, becoming the first Hispano-American woman to receive such an award. Acosta Rubio boosted the contest by giving it a **business** vision: he regulated the times of celebration to annual periods (formerly, it was very irregular due to political situations), he professionalized the qualification criteria of the models, and he used advertising methods to popularize it. In 1962, the competition was first transmitted by **television** through **Radio Caracas Televisión**, increasing its media exposure. During the 1960s, the organization had an international profile thanks to the constant visibility of its exponents like Mercedes Revenga (finalist in the Miss Beauty Form Contest in 1964), Mariela Pérez Branger (first finalist at Miss Universe in 1967), and Maritza Sayalero (crowned Miss Universe in 1979). Nonetheless, in 1981, Venezuela won both Miss Universe (Irene Sáez) and Miss World (Pilín León), consolidating an international prestige for Miss Venezuela that remains today. In 1982, Acosta Rubio sold the contest to Organización **Diego Cisneros**, who enhanced it with the inclusion of Osmel Sousa (who worked in the association from the 1970s as a costume designer) as president of Organización Miss Venezuela. Joaquín Riviera became the producer of the contest television show. Since then, it has been broadcast by Venevisión.

MISSIONS. System of evangelization and conquest based on the concentration of **aborigines** into settlements led by **religious** orders and organized with a set of rules to Christianize the **population**. Missions had three objectives: the acculturation and later transculturation of aborigines, with the purpose of achieving their Europeanization; the spreading of Christianity among aborigines; and the expansion first of the Spanish state and, since 1891, of the Venezuelan state in unpopulated areas and frontiers. Even though this can lead to the assumption that the religious aspect was only an excuse, the importance of this motivation, at least among the religious who organized missions, cannot be neglected. In this sense, the history of missions in Venezuela is divided into three stages.

Pure Evangelization (1512–1545). Inspired by Fray **Bartolomé de Las Casas**, Franciscan and Dominican friars settled close to the current city of **Cumaná**, aspiring to evangelize aborigines before their enslavement in the

Antilles, especially in **Cubagua**. They expected to Christianize them peacefully, preaching the gospel like the apostles, without the help of the military or political power. Several settlements were founded, and even Fray de Las Casas settled down in the area, but it was impossible to stop the kidnapping of aborigines by the Spanish **slave** traders and others. This led to an aboriginal revolt that destroyed these first missions. In retaliation, the Spanish organized a large military expedition with which they completed the conquest of Cumaná.

Colonial Missions (1654–1817). With the objective of expanding the control of the Spanish Crown and the **Catholic Church** in frontier territories, royal authorities gave permission to religious orders to found mission villages in areas like Orinoquia, Paraguay, and California. In these areas, the orders were autonomous of civilian and church authorities. Even though this period has been named as the “Pacific Conquest,” missionaries sometimes had military forces with them. Nevertheless, they were able to persuade aboriginals without the use of force, in particular in the *llanos* and the area of the **Orinoco River**, where they looked for protection from the incursions of the Dutch and their **Caribbean Indian** allies, who continued to kidnap and enslave them. The main religious orders were the Franciscans, Capuchins, and Dominicans. Once a mission was established, it started a process of both religious and secular education for the Indians in order to include them in the lawful, social, and cultural structures of the metropolis. Nevertheless, the priests who served in these lands learned their languages and recorded many of their traditions. By the end of the 1700s, there were about 437 settlements across the territory, which was a remarkable contribution to the configuration of the **population** of Venezuelan territory. In fact, it can be said that the largest founder of settlements in Venezuela was the Catholic Church. The **War of Independence** meant a decline in the development of the missions. The conflict between the Crown and its colonies not only made practically impossible the bringing in of more missionaries from Europe but also contributed to the extinction of some of them. An important example of this occurred at the **Guayana** missions in 1817, when the last clergymen who had survived and had been taken prisoner by patriots were executed. As a result, mission activity slowed, and many of the aborigines who dwelled in such places escaped and returned to their previous way of life. In 1821, the convents of at least eight religious orders were confiscated and their possessions used for public **education**. Since many of the friars had died or gone into exile, this meant in practice the elimination of most of the missions. During the second presidency of **José Antonio Páez**, there were two efforts to reactivate the missions in Cumaná (1842) and La Guaira (1842; 1843).

Contemporary Missions (1915–). Due to issues of **boundaries** and territorial limits, the Venezuelan state decided to replicate the policy of the Spanish Crown and in 1891 summoned Capuchin friars to establish missions along the Orinoco River. In 1915, this was extended to other places with the enactment of the Missions Law. From the 1920s, the first missional centers were created: Araguaimujo (1925), Barima (1925), San José de Amacuro (1927), and Guayo (1942), all in **Delta Amacuro State**. Then the establishment of vicariates started, important institutions for the control and design of the missions on the frontiers. The Capuchins managed to establish the Apostolic Vicariate of Caroní in 1922 (**Bolívar State**). In 1944, they founded the Apostolic Vicariate of Machiques (**Zulia State**) and 10 years later, in agreement with the government, also created the Apostolic Vicariate of Tucupita (Delta Amacuro State). The Salesians of Don Bosco did the same thing with the Apostolic Vicariate of Machiques in 1953. Nowadays, all of them are very active. Another extraordinary characteristic of this period is that the state gave permission to non-Catholic congregations to install missions around national territory.

MIYARES, FERNANDO (Santiago, Cuba, 1749–Santiago, Cuba, 1818). Spanish regime official between 1786 and 1798. He served as commander of the **province of Barinas** between 1799 and 1810, and between 1812 and 1814 he was governor and commander of the **province of Maracaibo**. Between 1810 and 1812, he was governor and general captain of the **province of Venezuela**. In 1788, he founded the city of San Fernando de **Apure**. In 1810, without knowledge of the movement of **April 19**, the Regency appointed him to succeed **Vicente Emparan** in the governorate and general captaincy of Venezuela; he started his functions in Maracaibo in July 1810. Facing the rebellion of **Caracas** and the advancement of the **Marqués del Toro** in **Coro**, who had remained loyal to the Crown, he organized a corps of troops to help, managing to repel the patriots. However, their efforts to form an army that could confront the rebels were unsuccessful. In March 1812, **Domingo Monteverde** refused to give up the command of the Spanish troops that landed with him in Coro. After the fall of the **First Republic**, Monteverde took over as governor and general captain of Venezuela, ignoring Miyares's authority. Shortly after, he was again named governor of Maracaibo.

MONAGAS (STATE). Located in the northeast of Venezuela, it has an area of 28,930 square kilometers and a **population** of 998,024, including **Warao** and **Kariña aboriginal** groups. Its capital is Maturín, and it has 13 municipalities and 43 parishes. Its main cities include Caripe, Punta de Mata, Caicara, and Quiriquire. It owes its name to the Monagas brothers (**José**

Tadeo and José Gregorio Monagas), both presidents of Venezuela in the 19th century. Monagas belonged to the **province of Cumaná**, province of Maturín, province of the **Oriente**, Bermúdez State, **Sucre State**, and, in 1909, became its own state. Its main **economic** activity is related to the **oil** and natural gas industry, along with the cultivation of **coffee**, **cocoa**, sugarcane, yams, yucca, cotton, African palm tree, algarrobo, and pinewoods, along with cattle raising. Tourism is important due to the area's climate and geographic diversity. It has plains, valleys, and mountain plateaus, protected as national parks. The region of Caripe is well known for its mountain climate and its variety of flowers. Other important places are the **Guácharo Cave**, the Natural Monument **Alexander von Humboldt**, the Serranía, the Turimiquire, and the Wood Reserve of Guarapiche. It has large rivers like the Morichal Largo, Guarapiche, Caripe, and Uraoa. During the **War of Independence**, its land was fiercely fought over by patriots and royalists for their strategic value in terms of resources, and later in the 19th century it was a stronghold of local warlords like the Monagas brothers themselves.

MONAGAS, JOSÉ GREGORIO (Aragua de Barcelona, 1795–Maracaibo, 1858). Military officer and politician, president of the republic between 1851 and 1855. He is known as the “Liberator of the Slaves” because in 1854 he promulgated the abolition of **slavery**. The brother of **José Tadeo Monagas**, he fought alongside him during the **War of Independence** until he was sent to Peru in 1824. He participated in the liberation of El Callao in 1825. Once he returned to Venezuela, his political life was shared with his brother. Thus, in 1851, he was elected president of the republic. When the **Revolución de Marzo** (March Revolution) overthrew his brother, he was imprisoned in the Castle of San Carlos, on **Maracaibo Lake**, where he fell ill. He died shortly afterward in the city of **Maracaibo**, where he was transferred to receive medical aid.

MONAGAS, JOSÉ RUPERTO (Barcelona, 1831–Barcelona, 1880). Military officer and politician, president of Venezuela between 1868 and 1870. The son of **José Tadeo Monagas**, in 1868, with the triumph of the **Revolución Azul** led by his father, he began a brief political and military career. In 1868, when his father passed away, he took over the government. During his term, **Zulia State** revolted against the national authorities and declared its autonomy. Monagas led a military expedition that defeated them and rejoined Zulia to the Venezuelan Federation. In 1870, the **Revolución de Abril** led by **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** removed him from power.

MONAGAS, JOSÉ TADEO (Tamarindo de Amana, 1784–Caracas, 1868). Caudillo, military officer, and politician; president of the republic

on three occasions (1847–1851, 1855–1858, and 1868), one of the most important military leaders of independence. Born to a family of ranchers, he began his military career as an ensign in the cavalry of the patriotic army of General **Santiago Mariño**. Between 1813 and 1821, he fought continuously in the **Oriente Region** until he achieved the rank of general. His great prestige due to his actions, his large family, his properties and pawns, and his good relations with **indigenous** groups made him the great leader of the region. In 1831, he rose against the separation of Venezuela from **Gran Colombia**, proposing an intermediate formula to re-create the **Oriente State** within a great federation. In 1834, he joined Mariño in the **Revolución de las Reformas**. When in 1846 the country was on the verge of another civil war, he was chosen by **José Antonio Páez** as a candidate for the so-called **Conservative Party**, being elected that same year. Already in power, he separated from the Conservatives and formed a government with the **Liberal** opposition. After the events of **January 24, 1848**, which basically suppressed the Conservative-dominated Congress, the so-called Liberal Oligarchy began. During this period, he ruled with the Liberals. Although he applied many of his policies, it was basically a very personalist period, led by him and his nucleus of relatives and others from his region—the so-called *orientales* (people from the East Region). Historiography usually defines his period as *monagato*. In 1851, his brother **José Gregorio Monagas** took the presidency. In 1855, he returned to the presidency, facing an **economic** crisis due to a fall in the price of **coffee** as well as administrative disorder. In 1857, he reformed the constitution to obtain more power and to be elected again. This made Liberals and Conservatives organize an alliance, the so-called **Revolución de Marzo** (March Revolution, 1858). The movement was directed by General **Julián Castro**. Monagas took refuge in the French legation, from where he was taken by force, producing a diplomatic impasse and the blockade of the coasts by the French and English militaries. Finally, he went into exile. The Liberals and Conservatives failed to achieve agreement on what to do with the government, and this disagreement caused the **Federal War**. Monagas returned to the country in 1864. When the government of **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón** sank in a pronounced political and economic crisis, he headed a great alliance of caudillos called the **Revolución Azul** (Blue Revolution), taking Caracas in 1868. Monagas assumed the government and called for elections, but he died of pneumonia before being able to participate. His son **José Ruperto Monagas** was elected. *See also* URRUTIA PROTOCOL.

MONASTERIOS, RAFAEL (Barquisimeto, 1884–Barquisimeto, 1961). Painter. A member of the School of **Caracas**, he was one of the leading landscape painters of the plastic **arts** in the Venezuelan 20th century. In 1938, he was awarded with the National Prize for Painting. In 1959, the School of

Visual Arts in Maracay adopted his name. In 1968, his works were exhibited in the Museum of Fine Arts, and in 1981 a retrospective exhibition was held at the Museum of Contemporary Art in Caracas.

MONTES DE OCA, SALVADOR (Carora, 1895–Massa, Italy, 1944). Bishop. In 1927, he was appointed bishop of **Valencia** when he was only 32 years old. In 1934, he was expelled from Venezuela by **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s government because of his opposition to the divorce **law** (enacted in 1904). The backdrop of the problem was the concern of liberal politicians about the growth of the **Catholic Church** during the 1920s. While in exile in **Trinidad** and due to the scandal produced by his deportation, Gómez allowed him to return. However, Montes de Oca had suffered a spiritual crisis and resigned from his bishopric. He moved to Italy and joined the Order of the Carthusians. In 1944, during the Second War World, some Italian resistance partisans took refuge in his convent. When the German troops discovered them, they shot 12 monks, including Montes de Oca. Today, many people consider him a martyr.

MONTEVERDE, DOMINGO (San Cristóbal de la Laguna, Spain, 1773–Cádiz, Spain, 1832). Military officer. Between 1808 and 1810, he participated outstandingly in the war against Napoleon. In 1812, he arrived to **Coro** from Puerto Rico with the mission to restore the colonial order in Venezuela. He besieged **Barquisimeto** and San Carlos (**Cojedes State**) and took **Valencia**. He managed to successfully reduce the patriotic forces, forcing **Francisco de Miranda** to sign the **Capitulation of San Mateo**, which marked the end of the **First Republic**. In September of that year, he was named general captain of the **province of Venezuela**. In 1813, he faced the invasion of **Santiago Mariño** in Maturín and unsuccessfully confronted **Simón Bolívar**'s **Campana Admirable** in **Caracas**. In October, he was defeated in the Battle of Trincheras, where he was wounded. He was forced to retire to Puerto Cabello and relinquish the command in order to travel to Puerto Rico. In 1814, he went to Spain, where he was promoted to brigadier. In 1823, he was elected general captain of Puerto Rico but could not accept the position due to poor **health**.

MORALES, FRANCISCO TOMÁS (Carrizal de Argüimes, Spain, 1781–Las Palmas, Spain, 1845). Spanish Army officer in Venezuela during the **War of Independence**, the last general captain of Venezuela between 1821 and 1823. He was known for his cruelty and ferocity in battle. In 1813, he joined **José Tomás Boves**'s forces and soon managed to become the second in command. In 1814, he attacked unsuccessfully **José Félix Ribas** in **La**

Victoria Battle and was defeated in the **San Mateo Battle**. Later that year, he led one of the forces that defeated **Simón Bolívar** in the Second Battle of La Puerta and tailed the patriot troops during the **Emigración a Oriente**. In 1815, he joined **Pablo Morillo** in the Spanish expedition to **Margarita Island** and to Cartagena de Indias. In 1816, he faced the plans of Bolívar to invade Venezuela (**Los Cayos Expeditions**) and defeated **Carlos Soubllette** in Los Aguacates. In 1818, he participated in offensive operations against Bolívar occurring in the plains of Calabozo and the valleys of the **Aragua**. In 1819, he participated in the campaign of **Apure**. With the departure of Morillo in 1820, he becomes the second in command to **Miguel de la Torre**. In 1821, he was defeated at the **Carabobo Battle**. In 1822, he stayed in command of the royalist forces as general captain of Venezuela with the departure of de la Torre. He began a campaign from Puerto Cabello in order to recover the territory in the hands of the patriots, reconquering all of **Zulia State** and conducting operations in **Trujillo** and **Mérida**. In July 1823, the Spanish were defeated in the **Maracaibo Lake Naval Battle**, forcing Morales to capitulate and depart to **Cuba** and then to Spain.

MORILLO, PABLO (Fuentesecas, Spain, 1778–Barèges, France, 1837). Military officer and Count of Cartagena and Marquis of La Puerta. He is known as the “Pacificador” (Peacemaker) for having led in 1815 the expeditionary force to quell the republican rebellion. After his successful participation in the Napoleonic Wars, in 1814 he was named by King Fernando VII the commander of the expedition and general captain of the province of Venezuela. He arrived to **Margarita Island** in 1815 with 15,000 men under his command and started the pacification campaign. He initiated the campaign in Nueva Granada, occupying Cartagena, and earned the title of Count of Cartagena. After taking control of Bogotá and restoring the viceroy, in 1816 he returned to Venezuela to prevent the advance of the patriots. In 1818, at the Battle of La Puerta, he managed to stop the advance of **Simón Bolívar** over **Caracas**, gaining the title of Marquis of La Puerta. In 1819, **José Antonio Páez** defeated him at the Battle of Las Queseras del Medio. In 1820, he received instructions from Spain to sign the Armistice Treaty and Regularization of War with Simón Bolívar, known as the **Trujillo Agreements**, ending the **War to Death**. In December, he traveled to Spain, remaining active in the service of the Crown until his death.

MUÑOZ TÉBAR, ANTONIO (Caracas, 1792–La Puerta, 1814). Public speaker, congressman, **journalist**, and public figure. In 1810, he abandoned his religious studies to join the cause of **April 19**. He was part of the Patriotic Society and with **Vicente Salias** was founder and editor of *El Patriota*

de Venezuela, which circulated between 1811 and 1812. In 1812, he was appointed secretary of state and foreign affairs. In 1813, **Simón Bolívar** selected him as secretary of finance and foreign affairs. Between 1813 and 1814, he collaborated with the *Gazeta de Caracas*. He died during the Battle of La Puerta.

MUÑOZ TÉBAR, JESÚS (Caracas, 1847–Caracas, 1909). Engineer, politician, and soldier. He was rector of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** in 1887 and in 1906. Minister of public works on several occasions between 1874 and 1892, he was responsible for the planning and constructions of almost all of the **roads** between 1870 and 1908. He also took part in the design of the Municipal Theater (once called the **Guzmán Blanco** Theater), the Vargas Hospital, and La Pastora Church. He was member of the **National Academy of History** and the **Venezuelan Academy of Language**.

MUSEUMS. Until the late 19th century, there were no museums in Venezuela. Most collections were private and belonged to important families and churches. With the arrival of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, a cultural policy was promoted to stimulate the construction of the Museo Nacional in 1875, designed by **Jesús Muñoz Tébar**. It had many zoological, mineralogical, and historical materials for exhibition. In 1883, the Museo Nacional was expanded, from which came the Exposición Nacional. One of its halls was called the Museo Bolívar, where several objects, images, and pictures regarding **Simón Bolívar**'s life were shown. Three years later, the **Fine Arts Academy** celebrated an exhibition of paintings. Soon the Museo Nacional closed down and its pieces passed to the Fine Arts Academy. In 1910, in Mérida the Diocesan Museum was founded, the first such institution created by the national church. It had many religious and native objects available to the public. The Museo de Bellas Artes of Caracas was founded by decree of **Juan Vicente Gómez** in 1935 but was not finished until 1938 under **Eleazar López Contreras**'s administration. Five years later, the Museo de Ciencias was created in the same place. The Museo **Arturo Michelena** was created in 1961, where paintings, sketches, and drawings by that artist can be seen. In 1973, the Museo de Arte Contemporáneo de Caracas opened, which thanks to **Sofía Imber**'s direction had an extensive collection of modern art by both national and international artists, including Picasso, Botero, Goya, and Duchamp. By that time in **Ciudad Bolívar**, the Museo de Arte Moderno **Jesús Soto** was instituted. In 1974, as an initiative taken by **Miguel Otero Silva**, **Alejandro Otero**, and Manuel Espinoza, the Galería de Arte Nacional was created, which collects the best of the visual **arts** of Venezuela from all times. In 1990, the Museo de Artes Visuales Alejandro Otero was instituted. Today,

there are more than 150 museums spread around the country, displaying many objects of historical and pedagogical value.

MUSIC. Colonial Period (16th–19th Centuries). Beginning in the colonial period, two genres of music developed. The first one was the popular, located in three specific places: the coastal zone (with African influence), the forest zone (where it showed native influence), and the central zone (with a noticeable Hispanic influence). Many of these manifestations had a religious purpose, as in the case of the *mare-mare*, a funerary dance used by the **aboriginal** people to honor an important person, or the celebrations of Saint John's Day among **Afro-Venezuelan** communities. Music was played for secular interest, such as in work songs and lullabies. The dynamics of these groups bequeathed over the years some very popular genres such as the **Zulian gaita** or the **zoropo** (considered the national dance par excellence) and many folkloric instruments like the maracas, the *cuatro*, the *furruco*, the *tambora*, and the harp. The second genre of music is the academic. Its origins go back to the 18th century, when the **Escuela de Música de Chacao** was founded. Its main members were Juan Manuel Olivares, who taught the lessons, and Father **Pedro Palacios y Sojo**, who was the sponsor of the project. During its existence, they managed to instruct about 30 composers and 150 instrumentalists, some of whom became great exponents of colonial music: **José Ángel Lamas**, Lino Gallardo, Cayetano Carreño, and Juan Francisco Meserón, among others.

Republican Period (19th–20th Centuries): Romanticism. With Father Sojo's death and the start of the **War of Independence**, the influence of the school decreased and music took on a political purpose through patriotic songs. Once peace returned, music education multiplied in the homes of the educated. The romantic aesthetic entered forcefully, taking the piano as a key instrument of creation. From this emerged important exponents like Felipe Larrazábal, José Ángel Montero, and **Teresa Carreño**, who was the best of the group.

Musical Nationalism. In the 20th century, a nationalist musical movement continued, influenced by romanticism but taking local referents as motifs. One of its greatest results was "**Alma llanera**" (1914), composed by **Pedro Elías Gutiérrez** and written by **Rafael Bolívar Coronado**.

Innovation and Experimental Music. In 1930s, a renewal took place thanks to contact with foreign composers and the creation of institutions like the School of Music and Declamation and the Venezuela Symphony Orchestra. From this point, experimentation in compositional structures as well as innovation in the production of old subjects commenced and remains today (for instance, Rházes Hernández López's electroacoustic experiments in the

late 1960s). All of this was possible due to the labor of many people, but especially of three artists who transformed academic music in Venezuela and the education of the new generations to come: José Antonio Calcaño, **Vicente Emilio Sojo**, and **Juan Bautista Plaza**. Musical institutions have continued to grow in both the public and the private arenas. The improvement of musical development in Venezuela reached prominent levels at the end of the 20th century. In 1975, **José Antonio Abreu** founded the **Sistema de Orquestas y Coros Juveniles e Infantiles de Venezuela**, also known as El Sistema, which uses classic music as a way to enhance the lives of young people. This cultural policy has been so successful that El Sistema is now widely popular around the world.

N

NARVARTE, ANDRÉS (La Guaira, 1781–Caracas, 1853). Lawyer and politician, interim president of Venezuela. A supporter of independence, between 1813 and 1814, during the **Second Republic**, he was governor of the **province of Trujillo**. In 1822, he was appointed *intendente* of Venezuela. In 1830, he was a delegate at the **Valencia Congress**. In 1831, he was named rector of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. Between 1833 and 1837, he served as vice president of Venezuela. He took charge of the presidency in 1835, at the end of **José Antonio Páez**'s term, and between April 1836 and January 1837, to fill the vacancy after the resignation of **José María Vargas**. In 1842, as vice president of the Governing Council, he reassumed the presidency temporarily to replace an absent Páez.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF HISTORY. Institution devoted to the study and teaching of history in Venezuela, founded in 1888 by President **Juan Pablo Rojas Paul**. Among its objectives are to collect ancient manuscripts and documents of historical persons, to investigate in order to clarify doubts about the national past, to examine and judge scholarly books to be published for history teaching, and to gather materials for the writing of Venezuela's history. It has one of the most complete historical archives of the country. Since 1912, the academy has published its *Boletín* (Journal), which is the oldest and one of the most important specialized publications on history in Venezuela. In 1958, the National Academy of History started a large publishing plan, editing several testimonial texts and documental compilations, reaching more than 1,000 titles.

NATIONAL ANTHEM. “Gloria al bravo pueblo” has been Venezuela's national anthem since 1881 by a decree issued during **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**'s administration. Officially, the authorship of the **music** is attributed to **Juan José Landaeta**, and **Vicente Salias** is considered the writer of the lyrics. Nonetheless, other sources have proposed Lino Gallardo as the composer and **Andrés Bello** as the writer of the anthem. In the **War of Independence**, this song became very popular among the patriots, and it has been sung across the years, even after the conflict that inspired it was over.

NATIONAL PANTHEON OF VENEZUELA. Monumental building where Venezuelan heroes rest. A church until 1876, the building was secularized by President **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** and made into a mausoleum for **Simón Bolívar** and other **War of Independence** and **Federal War** heroes. Guzmán ordered it rebuilt in a neogothic style. In 1930, **Juan Vicente Gómez** renovated it again to neobaroque, under the direction of the architect Manuel Mujica Millán, and had it decorated with paintings by **Tito Salas**. In 2013, a new mausoleum was created exclusively for Bolívar, contiguous with the *panteón*, designed by the architect Doménico Silvestro.

NATURAL DISASTERS. From a geographical and geological perspective, **Venezuela** is located at the edge of two tectonic plates, the Caribbean and the South American. The geological dynamics of both generate social and natural phenomena that create a high level of risk for society, especially as the **population** is concentrated in the mountainous north. In addition, there are three large systems of geological faults that run across the north: the Boco-nó Fault (west), the San Sebastian Fault System (center), and El Pilar Fault System (east). On the other hand, as it faces the Caribbean and the Atlantic, Venezuela is exposed to natural disasters such as tropical storms and marine transgressions. Consequently, social and natural disasters, earthquakes among them, have played an important role in the history of Venezuela, affecting geographical and social dynamics. The first recorded American disaster occurred during the early years of the conquest of Venezuelan lands. On 1 September 1530, the fort built by Jácome Castellón, located in Nueva Toledo (now **Cumaná**) was destroyed by an earthquake, which given its intensity also resulted in an episode of marine transgression. In 1541, the city of **Nueva Cádiz**, located in **Cubagua**, suffered the effects of a tsunami. The consequences were so severe that the settlement was never rebuilt. During the 17th century, Cumaná suffered a disaster with a high death toll in 1629 when the church and other religious buildings were leveled by an earthquake that caused the deaths of 300 people. Years later, in 1641, on Saint Barnabas's Day, an earthquake hit **Caracas** and neighboring towns, causing 500 deaths and the destruction of many buildings. Other disasters of relevance in the 18th century took place in the cities of **Maracaibo** (1766), **Trujillo** (1775), and Cumaná (1794). Nevertheless, the **Earthquake of 1812** is the largest recorded in Venezuela, when a powerful movement destroyed parts of the cities located across the center-west of the country, among them Caracas. The historical significance of the earthquakes (later research proved there were multiple tremors) exceeded just **economic** destruction, generating psychological, social, and politic effects that affected Venezuelan society amid the **War of Independence**. Caracas suffered earthquakes again in 1900 and 1967. Dur-

ing the 20th century, social-natural disasters with major impacts include the earthquake of El Tocuyo (**Lara State**) in 1950, destroying most of the city and causing several casualties, and the mudslide of El Limon (**Aragua State**) in 1987. Nevertheless, the deadliest disaster of all took place in 1999, known as the **Vargas Tragedy**. After intense rains, a mudslide along the central coast in **Vargas State** destroyed part of La Guaira and neighboring towns, causing around 20,000 deaths.

NAVARRETE, JUAN ANTONIO (Guama, 1749–Angostura, 1814). Philosopher and theologian. In 1767, he graduated from the **Universidad de Caracas**, and in 1769 he took the Franciscan habit in Santo Domingo. Four years later, he returned to **Caracas**. Sprung from Scotist influence and a republican supporter, most of his work was lost during the **War of Independence**. It included more than 40 books related to **religious** and human sciences. He left an important manuscript containing 800 folios of encyclopedic works, which were partially edited as *Arcas de letras y teatro universal*. See also SCOTIST SCHOOL OF CARACAS.

NAVY. With more than 2,000 kilometers of maritime coast, 315 **islands**, and many rivers, such as the **Orinoco**, the protection of water spaces is a key element of the security and protection of **Venezuela**. Since the declaration of independence, it has been imperative to organize a national navy. The **Congress of 1811** ordered the arming of cannon boats and midsize vessels and issued permission to corsairs to attack hostile forces and enemy cargo vessels. In 1813, there were sea battles between patriot and royalist forces. General **Juan Bautista Arismendi**, governor of the island-based **province of Margarita**, reorganized the naval forces, acquiring three vessels to protect the ports in the east of Venezuela from Spanish attack. In 1814, another squadron was created, composed of small ships, whose most important role was to evacuate republican forces defeated on the mainland. A decisive event in the course of the war was the creation of a naval squadron, led by **Luís Brión** and organized by **Simón Bolívar**, as part of a plan to invade Venezuela, known as the **Los Cayos Expedition**, which took place in 1816. On the other hand, corsairs played a role in sacking and assaulting enemy vessels, as well as in expanding the capacity to transport troops. The presence of naval forces in the Orinoco and Apure River campaigns was important, as it allowed land troops to siege and occupy the city of **Angostura** in 1817. In 1822, the Marine Corps were created. **Gran Colombia** was able to have a navy large enough to contemplate the liberation of **Cuba**. In the **Maracaibo Lake Naval Battle** of July 1823, the independence of Venezuelan territory was consolidated.

After the disintegration of Gran Colombia, political and **economic** instability made it difficult to create an efficient national navy. Nevertheless, in 1854, the Venezuelan Navy expelled American companies that had established on **Aves Island** to exploit guano and aspired to incorporate it into the **United States**. This reaffirmation of sovereignty was one of the few Venezuelan successes in defending its limits in the 19th century. During the government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, the navy was upgraded with some steamships, as there was the possibility of a war with the Netherlands in the Caribbean. Finally, under the administration of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, some cruisers were bought, and the Naval School was created in 1912. During the civil wars of the 19th century, the navy played an important role in transporting troops and repelling expeditions. The fight at Riohacha in September 1901 during Venezuela's participation in the War of One Thousand Days in **Colombia** and the siege of **Ciudad Bolívar** (July 1903) are two representative actions of the time.

With the modernization of the country and the increase of **oil** revenues in the 1930s, the navy was upgraded. In 1937, the first officers were sent to be prepared abroad, in 1938 the modern Marine Corps were created, and in 1939 modern Italian ships were bought. Once the Second World War ended, some surplus vessels were bought. The incident at **Los Monjes Islands** that almost triggered a war with Colombia in 1952, jointly with the oil windfall, allowed for a large renovation in 1953–1954, acquiring British and Italian destroyers. This permitted the navy to play an important role in defending the country during the conflicts of the 1960s, like the blockade of Cuba in 1962 and the *Invasión de Machurucuto* by Cuban guerrillas in 1967 during the *lucha armada* period. The navy was also a source of insurrections in the period, such as at Puerto Cabello in the *Porteñazo* (1962).

The navy experienced an important modernization in the 1970s and 1980s, acquiring missile-capable frigates from Italy. When in 1987 Venezuela was again on the brink of war with Colombia due to the **crisis of the Caldas corvette**, the navy showed its full operational capacity. Nevertheless, amid economic crisis, corruption, and mismanagement, it has not been possible to maintain or renew the fleet. Since the 2000s, there have been efforts, but with little success. *See also* ARMED FORCES; ARMY.

NAZOA, AQUILES (Caracas, 1920–Vicinity of Caracas, 1977). Poet and humorist. He is the author of works that preserve values of Venezuelan popular culture, including *El ruiseñor de Catuche* (1950), *Los humoristas de Caracas* (1966), and *La vida secreta de las muñecas de trapos* (1975).

NECTARIO MARÍA (Hyzas, France, 1888–Caracas, 1986). Historian, geographer, and educator, brother of the Order of Jean Baptiste de La

Salle. His real name was Louis Alfred Pratlon Bonicel. In 1913, he arrived in **Barquisimeto** with his congregation. There he started archeological and paleontological studies that laid the bases for the foundation of the Museo La Salle of Barquisimeto. He contributed to the Marian cult, especially that of the **Virgin of Coromoto**. He is remembered for curating about 120,000 bibliography cards and 1,000 volumes of copied documents regarding Venezuelan history at the General Archives of the Indies, now part of the **National Academy of History** and the Nation General Archive. Nectario Maria was the author of several textbooks for elementary and high school, along with several historical monographs.

NEUMANN, HANUS “HANS” (Prague, Czechoslovakia, 1921–Caracas, 2001). Businessman, entrepreneur, philanthropist, and **art** patron. Of Jewish origin, he studied chemistry and worked in a family **business** related to paint in Czechoslovakia. Once the communist regime took power in his homeland after the Second World War, Neumann migrated to Venezuela with his brother Lotar. In 1949, they started Montana Fabrica de Pinturas, a small paint plant in **Caracas**. During the 1950s, Montana capitalized on the huge increase in infrastructure building in both the public and private sectors, becoming the country’s leading paint manufacturer. From 1959 onward, the Neumanns started a substantial diversification in business. Backward integration was done with a resin plant (RESIMON), label printer (Montana Grafica), phthalic anhydride factory (OXIDOR), zinc oxide producer (MINOMET), ink maker (Grafis), and paint distribution company (Distribuidora Nu Enamel). Increasing the scope, they bought the fruit juice companies Frutera Industrial (FRICA) and Empacadora California Venezolana. In 1970, Neumann consolidated his companies under Corporacion Industrial Montana (CORIMON), went public on the Venezuelan stock market, and became one of the most important and prestigious local business groups. He led CORIMON actively until the start of the 1990s. After the successive losses of his brother and son, his brother’s son-in-law became CEO and started an aggressive international expansion across the Americas. The operations were not successful and ended up in a **bank** restructuring of the business. The Neumann family kept less than 5 percent of the shares of CORIMON. He was also actively involved in the media sector with the CORIMON magazine *Revista M*, the political analysis magazines *Número* and *Semana*, the **news-papers** *El Diario de Caracas* and *Tal Cual*, and the English-language newspaper *The Daily Journal*. Neumann was one of the first local businessmen who developed corporate social responsibility initiatives through Fundacion Neumann. Very active in local society life, he was a patron to artists and owned a large art collection.

NEW YORK AND BERMUDEZ COMPANY. Company of American capital tied to asphalt exploitation, a subsidiary of General Asphalt of Philadelphia, holding the concession to an asphalt lake in Guanoco, Bermúdez State (later **Sucre State**). During **Cipriano Castro**'s administration, after a negative ruling for not honoring contract terms, the company funded, along with other foreign corporations, the military revolution known as the **Revolución Libertadora** (1901–1903) led by **Manuel Antonio Matos**. In the early 20th century, the company entered the **oil** business when it received from its lawyer Rafael Max Valladares the famous Valladares **oil concession**. The company transferred to **Shell** the deposits of **Zulia State** when the modern Venezuelan oil industry began in 1914.

NEWSPAPERS. *See* JOURNALISM.

NIÑO, PEDRO ALONSO (?–?). Navigator, explorer, and merchant. He accompanied **Christopher Columbus** on his third voyage, coming to the Venezuelan eastern coast and realizing the potential of **pearl** hunting. In 1499, he organized a journey of *rescate* (bartering with the **aborigines**) for pearls, traveling the coast of Paria, **Margarita Island**, and Araya, where he found salt deposits. The voyage was a financial success, but Niño was jailed for trying to deceive the Crown regarding his taxes. However, news of the abundance and wealth in pearls rapidly extended and was a key factor in the arrival of numerous Spanish explorers.

NOVEMBER 27, 1992. Second military attempt to oust the democratically elected President **Carlos Andrés Pérez**. It was led by members of the **Air Force** and **navy**, Hernán Gruber Odremán, Luis Reyes Reyes, Francisco Visconti, and Luis Cabrera Aguirre, and the leftist organizations **Bandera Roja** and **Tercer Camino**. The main objective was to appoint a civil–military junta. The movement failed, causing several civil and military casualties in **Caracas**, and the leaders fled to Peru as refugees. They were tried but were released from prison during **Rafael Caldera**'s administration, maintaining full political rights despite their actions against democracy. *See also* CHÁVEZ FRÍAS, HUGO; FEBRUARY 4, 1992.

NUEVA ANDALUCÍA (PROVINCE). Political-territorial unit existing between 1568 and 1810. It was created by a *capitulación* (a contract between the king and a private individual) for conquest and settlement given to conqueror Diego Hernández de Serpa. Originally, it covered the territory of the present **Sucre**, **Anzoátegui**, and **Monagas States**, being the base of the historical region known as the **Oriente** (East). Administratively, it formed

part of Santo Domingo until it passed to the Viceroyalty of New Granada. In 1777, it was one of the provinces out of which the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** was formed. In 1810, the city of **Barcelona** and its region separated to form a new province (the **province of Barcelona**), and Nueva Andalucía started to be known as the **province of Cumaná**.

NUEVA CÁDIZ. *See* CUBAGUA.

NUEVA ESPARTA (STATE). Located in the northeast of the country, it is constituted by three **islands** (**Margarita**, Coche, and **Cubagua**). It has an area of 1,150 square kilometers (0.13 percent of the country) and a **population** of 491,610 (2011 census, 1.69 percent of the country), divided among 11 municipalities and 19 parishes. The **province of Margarita** was renamed in 1817 Nueva Esparta (New Sparta) due to the bravery of its people in fighting the invading Spanish troops.

NUÑEZ, ENRIQUE BERNARDO (Valencia, 1895–Caracas, 1964). Novelist, **journalist**, historian, and diplomat. He is the chronicler of the city of **Caracas** and the author of such works as *La Galera de Tiberio* (1938), *El hombre de la levita gris* (1943), and *La ciudad de los techos rojos* (1947). In 1931, he published *Cubagua*, a novel considered a forerunner of modern Latin American **literature**.

NUÑO, JUAN (Madrid, Spain, 1927–Caracas, 1995). Philosopher, professor, and columnist. After his graduation from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, Nuño studied at the University of Cambridge. In Paris, he was a disciple of Maurice Merleau-Ponty. A specialist in ancient philosophy, he taught at the UCV, where he led the Institute of Philosophy. He was also a visiting professor at the Universities of Barcelona (Spain), Río Piedras (Puerto Rico), and San Marcos de Lima (Peru) and the Universidad Autónoma de México. Some of his most important works are *El pensamiento de Platón* (1963), *Filosofía en Borges* (1986), and *Sionismo, marxismo, anti-semitismo: La cuestión judía revisitada* (1987). Also a film critic, his works about cinema were compiled in *200 horas en la oscuridad*.

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OATH OF MONTE SACRO (Rome, Italy, 15 August 1805). Oath made by **Simón Bolívar** in Rome announcing his commitment to the independence of Hispanic America. The oath was witnessed by his 36-year-old master and tutor **Simón Rodríguez** as well as by Fernando Rodríguez del Toro, 32 years old. Bolívar was only 22 years old, but he was mature enough due to his complex family life and the sudden and recent death of his wife, **María Teresa Rodríguez del Toro y Alayza**. The Monte Sacro in question is the Aventine Hill, important in Roman history, becoming a historical reference for **Caracciolo Parra Pérez** in studying the life of the Liberator.

OCHOAVIA, MIGUEL DE (Barinas, 1614–?). Expedition leader. In order to find a secure route to export products, in 1647 he led an expedition to find a watercourse between **Barinas Province** and the **Orinoco River**. Fray Jacinto de Carvajal, chaplain of the expedition, recorded the trip a travel diary, *Relación del descubrimiento del río Apure hasta su ingreso en el Orinoco*, published in 1892.

OCTOBER 18, 1945. Also known as the October Revolution, it was the civilian–military coup against the government of President **Isaías Medina Angarita**. The uprising was the result of the alliance of a secret military group, the Unión Patriótica Militar, formed by a coalition of junior officers of the **armed forces**, with the political party **Acción Democrática**. Its main leaders were **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** and **Rómulo Betancourt**. Although both groups had different programs, they allied circumstantially. After numerous struggles, on 19 October, the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno** (the Revolutionary Government Board) was created, headed by Betancourt. It marked the beginning of the **Trienio** government.

OIL. Mix of hydrocarbons that exists in nature in gaseous, liquid, or solid states. Crude oil is petroleum as it exists in the liquid phase. Natural gas is the gaseous state. Natural bitumen is its solid state. Natural asphalt is bitumen that exists in nature in superficial or low-depth deposits. The first uses of oil

are found in the **pre-Hispanic period**, when **aborigines** used it for **medicinal** purposes and called it *mene*. In Venezuela, it is found in basins located across the national territory, specifically in the Maracaibo–Falcón Basin, the Eastern Basin, the Tuy–Cariaco Basin, the Apure–Barinas Basin, and the **Orinoco Oil Belt**. The Maracaibo–Falcón Basin includes the subbasin of **Maracaibo** with a surface area of 67,000 square kilometers, including **Zulia**, **Falcón**, and **Lara States**. The Eastern Basin is the largest, with an extent of 150,000 square kilometers, and includes the states of **Anzoátegui**, **Monagas**, **Guárico**, **Sucre**, and **Delta Amacuro**. The Tuy–Cariaco Basin, located north of the Eastern Basin, has a surface area of 18,000 square kilometers and extends from Barlovento in **Miranda State** to Cariaco in Sucre State. The Apure–Barinas Basin, with an area of 87,000 square kilometers, includes **Apure**, **Barinas**, and **Portuguesa States**. Finally, the Orinoco Oil Belt, with a surface area of 45,000 square kilometers, is in the states of Anzoátegui, Monagas, Guarico, and Delta Amacuro. Since the 1920s, oil has been the most important source of income in Venezuela, exploited by foreign multinationals until 1970s, when oil production peaked at 3.7 million barrels per day, and since then mostly by the state oil company **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.** During this period, Venezuela became one of the largest oil producers and exporters worldwide. Oil is a nonrenewable natural resource highly important from a strategic standpoint and changed the **economy**, society, and culture of Venezuela. Currently, Venezuela obtains more than 95 percent of its export revenue from oil, producing around 2.7 million barrels per day, of which two million are exported and 700,000 internally consumed. Its proven reserves are around three hundred billion barrels, among the largest in the world, yet mostly in heavy and extra-heavy oil, expensive to produce and enhance to be commercially attractive.

OIL CONCESSIONS. The first concession granted in Venezuela to exploit hydrocarbons was made in 1854 during the presidency of **José Gregorio Monagas** to D. B. Hellyer. In 1878, a concession was granted to Manuel Antonio Pulido to exploit **oil** discovered at his hacienda La Alquitrana in Táchira. In 1883, during the **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** regime, Horatio Hamilton received a concession to exploit hydrocarbons in Bermúdez State. In 1897, another concession was given to the firm Felicidad to exploit the Guanoco pitch lake. Later, Hamilton handed his concession to the U.S.-based asphalt company **New York and Bermudez Company**. With the **Andean Hegemony** in power, **Cipriano Castro** (1899–1908) enacted the **Mining Law** and started granting concessions without approval of Congress. This system was maintained until 1956 during **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** dictatorship. Some of these concessions were granted to Eduardo Echenagucia,

Andrés Vigas, **Antonio Aranguren**, Rafael Max Valladares, Jiménez Arraíz, and Bernabé Planas. With the arrival to power of **Juan Vicente Gómez** (1908–1935), concessions were granted to foreign multinational oil companies. The Hydrocarbons Laws of the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s regulated the state taxes and royalties. With the approval of the Hydrocarbons Law Reform of 1943, concessions were confirmed until 1983, although in 1956 more concessions were granted until 1996. Nevertheless, the policy of “no more concessions,” developed by **Juan Pablo Pérez Alfonzo** during the **Trienio Adeco** (1945–1947), was resumed after the fall of Pérez Jiménez in 1958, ending the assignment of new oil concessions, and paving the way to **oil nationalization** (1976). In the 1990s, foreign oil multinationals arrived again to Venezuela, but agreements were different than former oil concessions, lasting until 2007, when the leftist government of **Hugo Chávez** expropriated them, diluted their shares in ownership, or found new partners from countries like China and Russia.

OIL NATIONALIZATION. In 1975, President **Carlos Andrés Pérez** presented to the National Congress the Project of **Oil Industry Nationalization**, which had been considered since democracy returned in 1958. After intense and polemic debates and negotiations with the oil multinationals, handled by Mines and Hydrocarbons Minister Valentín Hernández Acosta, the **law** was approved. This law reserved to the Venezuelan state the exploration, exploitation, manufacture, refining, transport, and commercialization of oil, asphalt, and other hydrocarbons. On 31 December 1975, all **oil concessions** to foreign multinationals expired, and on 1 January 1976, at the **Zumaque I** well, the first commercial oil well discovered in Venezuela, President Pérez proclaimed the nationalization. This process was nonviolent and negotiated with oil multinationals, which was quite peculiar in comparison to nationalizations in other Latin American, African, and Asian countries. From 1976 onward, the state oil company **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A.**, has assumed oil operations in Venezuela through its subsidiaries. *See also* PÉREZ ALFONZO, JUAN PABLO.

OJEDA, ALONSO DE (Cuenca, Spain, c. 1466–Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, c. 1516). Explorer, navigator, conquistador, and governor. He accompanied **Christopher Columbus** on his second voyage, being his close collaborator in the conquest of Santo Domingo. After they broke off their relationship, he went back to Spain and looked for permission and funds for his own expedition. In 1499, he explored the entire Venezuelan coast, from the **Essequibo** River to the **Guajira Peninsula**. With him was **Amerigo Vespucci**, who came up with the name **Venezuela** when he noticed the

signature *palafitos* in the **Gulf of Venezuela**. Traveling with him was also **Juan de la Cosa**. The voyage was a financial success, and Ojeda obtained in 1502 power from the Spanish Crown to create the first province in the current territories of Venezuela and **Colombia**, the province of Coquivacoa. It included the **Guajira Peninsula**, the Gulf of Venezuela, and the coast of the present **Falcón State**. As the capital city, he founded Santa Cruz, close to the current town of Castilletes, on the Guajira Peninsula. Santa Cruz was the first city established by the Spanish in South America. This province did not last long, but in 1504 Ojeda gained another *capitulación* (contract between a conqueror and the king) to occupy all the territory from Cabo de la Vela to Panama. This new venture also failed. Ojeda married a native and baptized her Isabel in honor of the Catholic queen, being known as the India Isabel.

O'LEARY, DANIEL FLORENCE (FLORENCIO) (Cork, Ireland, 1801–Bogotá, Colombia, 1854). Military officer in the armies of **Venezuela** and **Colombia** during the **War of Independence**, member of the **Legión Británica**, writer, and diplomat. In 1818, he arrived in Venezuela as a member of the Red Hussars cavalry corps, a group that had been recruited in the British Isles. In **Angostura**, he was named a member of the Guard of Honor of **Simón Bolívar**, and they began a close friendship. In 1819, he participated in the **Andes Crossing**, one of the riskiest actions in continental military history, described by O'Leary himself. He participated in the Battle of Boyacá, where the Campaign of Nueva Granada came to an end. In 1820, he was aide-de-camp to Bolívar, staying several months in Cúcuta, where the plan of the final liberation of Venezuela was prepared. He actively participated in the armistice negotiations between Bolívar and **Pablo Morillo**, known as the **Trujillo Agreements**. In 1821, he participated in the **Carabobo Battle**. In 1822, he joined **Antonio José de Sucre** in the campaign to liberate Ecuador, being part of the Battle of Pichincha. In September of that year, he accompanied Bolívar to Peru, and in October he performed a diplomatic–military mission in Chile. From 1825, at the end of the independence campaigns, he collaborated closely with Bolívar on his projects for continental integration, social reform, and political stability. In 1826, he mediated disputes between **José Antonio Páez** and **Francisco de Paula Santander**. In 1829, he participated with Sucre and **Juan José Flores** in the Battle of Portete Tarqui against Peruvian forces commanded by General José de La Mar that sought to secede from the *grancolombian* unity and invade Ecuador. That same year he led the division that faced the group of dissidents led by José María Cordova in Colombia. In 1830, he accompanied Bolívar, as aide-de-camp, during his last months of life. In 1833, he returned to Caracas and served as a diplomat in London, Madrid, and Paris with the mission of gaining recognition of Ven-

ezuela as an independent country. In 1837 he moved to Italy with instructions from President **Carlos Soublette** to gain an agreement between the Vatican and Venezuela, which was not successful. In 1841, he was named by Great Britain as chargé d'affaires in Caracas and as a consul of Puerto Cabello. In 1843, he was appointed general consul of England in Bogotá. His remains were transferred to the **National Pantheon** in 1882. O'Leary retained an important part of Bolívar's archives and expanded it, collecting documents with the help of former military fellows. This collection, published in 32 volumes under the name *Memorias del general O'Leary*, was the initial core of the Archivo del Libertador. His descendants ceded it to the Venezuelan state during the government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, and it is currently held in Caracas.

ORDAZ, DIEGO DE (Castroverde de Campos, Spain, 1480–Cumaná, 1532). Explorer, conqueror, and soldier. After accompanying Hernán Cortés on his expedition of conquest to the Mexican mainland, in 1530 he was granted by Emperor Charles V the governorship of the territory from the **Orinoco River** to Maracapaná (in present-day **Sucre State**). He prepared an expedition to explore the Orinoco River in search of the golden city of **El Dorado**. With 1,000 men, the expedition began at the mouth of the Orinoco River, traveling 150 kilometers inland amid constant attacks by the **Caribbean peoples** who inhabited the surroundings. In 1552, Venezuela founded a planned city on the banks of the Orinoco called Puerto Ordaz, today one of the main cities of the country.

ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES, RELATIONS WITH. Venezuela has been a member of the Organization of American States (OAS) since its founding in 1948. Since 1957, the OAS has been represented in the country. During the democratic **República Civil** period between 1958 and 1998, Venezuela was a prominent promoter and executor of the rules and agreements established by the organization. The OAS condemned both the Dominican Republic in 1960 and **Cuba** in 1964 as Venezuela proved those countries committed acts against its democracy and internal security. In 1983, **Colombia**, Mexico, Panama, and Venezuela met on Panama's Contadora Island to serve as mediators in the armed conflicts in Central America. In September of that year, because of the Contadora Group's efforts, Central American foreign ministers committed to seeking enduring peace in the region. In July 1985, another meeting was held in Lima with the incorporation of Argentina, **Brazil**, Peru, and Uruguay. The group would later be named the Rio Group and addressed key diplomatic situations such as the war for the Islas Malvinas (Falkland Islands) in 1982. With the arrival of the **Bolivarian**

Revolution in 1999, relations between the OAS and Venezuela suffered. Following the political tension after the **April 11, 2002, events**, the organization had an active presence in the country through its secretary-general, César Gaviria, in the so-called Mesa de Negociación, which brought together representatives of the opposition and of **Hugo Chávez's** government. However, the results were not totally honored by the government, and the agreement was a failure to the eyes of some. During **Nicolás Maduro's** term, the relationship has deteriorated as human rights have been constantly violated. Since 2014, groups with political life in the country have requested the application of the Carta Democrática (Democratic Charter), approved in September 2001 with the objective of strengthening democratic institutions. The systematic incarceration of political figures opposed to the *chavista* regime, such as **Leopoldo López** and the metropolitan mayor of Caracas, Antonio Ledezma, along with about 100 others persecuted or imprisoned, reduced the democratic governance of the country. At the June 2016 assembly session, Secretary-General Luis Almagro presented a report requesting the implementation of the charter. The petition was based on the humanitarian crisis generated by the shortage of food and medicine, the blockade of National Assembly functions by the executive branch and the Supreme Court dominated by the executive, and the human rights violations against political prisoners. In April 2017, the implementation of the charter was again requested, this time alleging the complete violation of democratic rules as the Supreme Court, through two rulings, assumed all National Assembly functions, acts considered as coups d'état. In response, the government initiated procedures to abandon the forum.

ORIENTE (REGION). Oriente (East) is the name given to the historic region that encompasses the northeastern area of Venezuela, during the colonial period **Nueva Andalucía Province**. After being integrated into the **General Captaincy of Venezuela**, it was known as Oriente to its eastern extreme. The unit contained **Sucre, Anzoátegui, Nueva Esparta, and Monagas States**. In 1975, these were grouped as an administrative region (except for Nueva Esparta) to coordinate development. The landscape of the Oriente Region includes coastline, the Coastal Mountain Range, the Macizo Oriental, and the *llanos orientales* (eastern plains). The **economy** and development are unequal among the states. While tourism is important on the coast along with fishing and some manufacturing operations, in the plains **oil** operations predominate.

ORIENTE (STATE). Name assigned to two distinct political-territorial units, although both occupy the same territory, corresponding to the historical **Oriente Region**. The first Oriente State was formed in 1813, during the **War of Independence**, when **Santiago Mariño** liberated the region and

established an independent state there. It lasted until 1814, when it was occupied again by royalist troops. The second was decreed in 1881 by **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, within the process of territorial reorganization undertaken then. It integrated all eastern parts of Venezuela, except **Margarita Island**. Renamed Bermúdez State, it was dissolved in 1901. *See also* CAMPAÑA DE ORIENTE.

ORIGINAL PEOPLE. Also known as indigenous peoples and traditionally as Indians (a category that today is considered incorrect and ethnocentric), the term refers to the ethnic groups that already lived in the Venezuelan territory before the arrival of Europeans in the 15th century. As the **Constitution** of 1999 declared Venezuela a multiethnic and pluricultural nation, they were recognized as having equal rights with the rest of Venezuelans. According to the 2012 indigenous census, they numbered 725,128 people. *See also* APPENDIX 4; ARAWAK PEOPLE; CARIBBEAN PEOPLE; KARIÑA PEOPLE; POPULATION; PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD; WARAO PEOPLE; WAYÚU PEOPLE.

ORINOCO OIL BELT. Area of 55,514 square kilometers containing one of the largest deposits of extra-heavy **oil** in the world. It extends through **Monagas, Anzoátegui, and Guárico States**. Its potential has been known since the 1960s, but its exploitation started in the 1990s through the process of Apertura Petrolera, in which **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. (PDVSA)**, made strategic alliances with leading oil multinationals, forming four large blocks of operations. In addition, the development of Orimulsion, a new bituminous substance patented by PDVSA that can be used as fuel, incentivized the process. However, in 2007, operations there were nationalized by the **Hugo Chávez** regime. During the 2010s, the reservoir was renamed the Hugo Chávez Oil Belt.

ORINOCO RIVER. Largest river and with the greatest volume of water in Venezuela. The river runs from the **Brazil** frontier to a delta to the Atlantic Ocean in **Delta Amacuro State**. It has a length of 2,140 kilometers with a flow of 37,800 cubic meters per second. Before the conquest, the Orinoco River was used by **aboriginal** tribes for transportation, called by them the Huyapari, Uripari, or Barraguan. European explorers used the river to simplify penetration of the territory. The Orinoco has more than 2,000 tributary rivers, ravines, and small streams, 67.5 percent of them coming from Venezuela and 32.5 percent from **Colombia**. The Casiquiare, Negro, Amazonas, Atabapo, Guaviare, Meta, Caroní, Apure, Caura, Aro, and Cuchivero are a few of them. The Orinoco River is divided into three sections: the High,

Middle, and Low Orinoco. The Orinoco's delta represents the end of the river, spreading to a surface area of 22,000 square kilometers with low, fertile grounds. Today the river allows for the transit of large vessels carrying export goods from **mining** and aluminum and steel production.

ORPÍ, JOAN (ORPÍN, JUAN DE) (Piera, Spain, 1593–Barcelona, 1645). Military officer and administrator, considered the last conqueror of Venezuela. In 1632, he organized an expedition to the land of the Cumanagotos Indians (present-day **Sucre State**), between the governorates of **Venezuela** and **Cumaná**, definitively defeating them in 1637. In February 1638, he founded New Barcelona of the Cerro Santo (the present-day city of **Barcelona**).

OTERO, ALEJANDRO (Ciudad Bolívar, 1921–Caracas, 1990). Painter, sculptor, drawer, and writer. Once he finished his artistic education at the Escuela de Artes Plásticas y Artes Aplicadas de Caracas, he traveled to Europe, where he was influenced by the legacy of Pablo Picasso and Piet Mondrian. From then on, he abandoned figurative **art**, initiating his serial work *Las Cafeteras* (1946–1947). In the early 1950s, he joined the group the Dissidents, which published a manifesto called “No” claiming a new type of art. From 1955 to 1960, he began his *coloritmos*, one of his most important aesthetic projects, whose impact was felt in the Latin American cultural context. He also wrote many articles about art. Along with **Miguel Otero Silva** and Manuel Espinoza, he participated in the creation of the National Art Gallery in 1976. Sculptures like *Abra Solar* and *Aguja Solar* made him, together with **Carlos Cruz Diez** and **Jesús Soto**, one of the main exponents of the new 20th-century Venezuelan art, especially kinetic art. In 1990, the **Museo Alejandro Otero** opened in Caracas, honoring his virtuosity.

OTERO SILVA, MIGUEL (Barcelona, 1908–Caracas, 1985). Novelist, poet, editor, **journalist**, and politician. A member of **Generación del 28**, he had to escape abroad after the failure of the rebellions against **Juan Vicente Gómez** in that year. During his exile, he joined the communist movement. In 1929, he took part in the Assault of Curaçao and in the expedition of **Rafael Simón Urbina** to Venezuela. Once this attempt to overthrow Gómez was defeated, Otero Silva went to Europe. In 1936, after the death of the dictator, he returned to Venezuela and resumed his political activities. He also started his career as a journalist. In 1942, he founded the humor weekly *El morrocoy azul* and in 1943 the newspaper *El Nacional*. At the same time, he wrote poems and novels. His literary works were marked by the political and social influence of leftist thinking, including *Fiebre* (1939), *Casas muertas* (1955), *La muerte de Honorio* (1963), and *Lope de Aguirre, príncipe de la libertad* (1979).

OTTOLINA, RENNY (Valencia, 1928–Caracas, 1978). TV entertainer and producer. His real name was Reinaldo José Ottolina. He started in the 1940s on **radio**, but it was in the 1950s and 1960s that he became quite famous thanks to **television**, especially **Radio Caracas Television's** channel 2. He considered running for the presidency, but died in an airplane accident.

OVIEDO Y BAÑOS, JOSÉ (Bogotá, Colombia, 1671–Caracas, 1738). Historian. He arrived to **Caracas** in 1686 to fulfill his studies under the tutelage of his uncle, Bishop Diego de Baños y Sotomayor. A member of the City Council of Caracas, he became mayor in 1699, 1710, and 1722. In 1725, he published his *Historia de la conquista y población de la Provincia de Venezuela*, which has been seen as one of the best historiographical texts of its time.

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PACTO DE PUNTOFIJO. Political agreement signed on 31 October 1958, a few months after the overthrow of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** and before the elections in December of that same year of presidential candidates **Rómulo Betancourt** for **Acción Democrática (AD)**, **Rafael Caldera** for **COPEI**, and **Wolfgang Larrazábal** for **Unión Republicana Democrática (URD)**. The pact, one of the most important political documents of the 20th century, allowed for the stabilization of the incipient representative democratic system, which prevailed over four decades. The signed parties agreed to recognize the electoral results, to implement a coalition government of national unity where none of the three parties had a supremacy in the executive cabinet, and to present a minimally common program of government. The pact, in practice, created a bipartisan entity between AD and COPEI as URD gradually lost influence in the system. Although it was designed to last for the first constitutional period (1959–1964), in practice its rules remained in force until 1999. This 40-year period is known as the *puntofijista* and as the **República Civil**.

PADRÓN, BALTASAR (Spain, ?–Caracas, 1817). Member of the Executive Triumvirate, which supervised the presidency between March 1811 and February 1812, during the **First Republic**. In 1778, he came to Venezuela after having served the Crown in Santo Domingo and Puerto Rico. He practiced the general administration of the Renta del Tabaco (**tobacco** monopoly) in **Maracaibo** and Guanare, and from 1788 in **Caracas**. Named by the **Congress of 1811**, he was part of the first triumvirate, along with **Cristóbal Mendoza** and **Juan Escalona**. In 1812, he was removed from his chair by **Domingo Monteverde** and restored in 1813 by **Simón Bolívar**. After the fall of the **Second Republic**, he remained in Caracas, where he took steps to demonstrate his loyalty to the Crown until his death.

PÁEZ, JOSÉ ANTONIO (Curpa, 1790–New York, U.S.A., 1873). Military officer and politician. He was one of the most important leaders of the patriotic side during the **War of Independence** and the leader of the separation of Venezuela from **Gran Colombia** in 1830. He was president of Venezuela on three occasions: from 1830 to 1834, from 1839 to 1843, and from 1861 to

1863. In 1807, he went into the plains of **Apure** escaping from justice after a fight he got into with four thieves in which one of them was killed. He served as a worker on the farm of Manuel Antonio Pulido under the supervision of a slave. This experience was formative because he learned the values and the life of the *llanos*. Three years later he already had a property. When the **War of Independence** began, he joined the republican army. After the fall of the **Second Republic**, he started to organize a guerrilla unit in the plains region. Very soon he became the leader of the *llaneros*, the mestizo people of the plains who before had been followers of **José Tomás Boves**. Famous for their abilities as riders, they were a formidable cavalry force. Páez attracted them to the independence cause. Between 1816 and 1818, he won several battles, such as those at El Yagual, Mata de Miel, and Mucuritas, which made him well known. In 1818, he had an interview with **Simón Bolívar**, agreeing to fight with him against the Spaniards. In 1819, Páez won Las Queseras del Medio, one of his most important battles, where he beat a force of 2,000 royalists with only 150 lancers. Thereafter, the fame of Páez rose even more. His participation was key in the **Carabobo Battle** (1821), which ensured the control of **Caracas** and the center of Venezuela. In 1823, he led the **assault of Puerto Cabello**, the last garrison in Venezuela in Spanish hands. Appointed military chief of the Venezuela Department within Gran Colombia, when the secessionist rebellion of **La Cosiata** (1826) broke, he became the leader of the movement. One year later, with the aim of avoiding the dismemberment of Colombia, Bolívar appointed him *jefe superior* (superior chief) of the **Venezuela, Zulia, and Orinoco Departments**. However, by 1829, the union was in crisis, and Bolívar enacted a decree calling for the formation of assemblies in order to decide the future of Gran Colombia. In Caracas and other Venezuelan cities, these assemblies decided on separation and handed power to Páez. Thus, on 13 January 1830, he called for elections to establish an independent Venezuelan congress. Once the division was complete, Páez was declared president of the Republic of Venezuela. During the first years of independent life, known as the **Conservative Oligarchy** (1830–1848), he was the most important **caudillo** and guaranteed the political stability of the new republic. For instance, when a group of military officers staged the **Revolución de las Reformas**, a coup against the constitutional president **José María Vargas**, in 1835 he organized a force to restore Vargas to power. In that period, several liberal reforms were promoted, in some cases before they were enacted by the **United States** or the United Kingdom, including pro-market laws, freedom of worship, the establishment of the London Colonial **Bank** in Caracas and commercial agreements with several European countries, the practice of fiscal discipline, and the timely payment of **external debt**. In foreign policy, a border treaty with New Granada was concluded by the Colombian Lino de

Pombo and the Venezuelan **Santos Michelena**, but the National Congress did not ratify it. By that time, there were negotiations to distribute among New Granada and Quito the debt contracted while they were part of the República de Colombia. In 1842, Páez repatriated the body of **Simón Bolívar** with all honors. In 1840, organized opposition to the regime surged with the arriving of the Liberal Party and its newspaper *El Venezolano*. From there, Liberals criticized Páez's enrichment and the continuity of certain elites in power. As **coffee** prices collapsed, discontent spread. While in 1842 Páez's ally **Carlos Soublette** won the presidential elections, the popularity of the caudillo began to decline. In the electoral year 1846, a civil war broke out. Although Páez defeated the rebellion and the Liberal leader **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán** was imprisoned, most of the people supported the Liberals. Therefore, the new president, former ally **José Tadeo Monagas**, split from Páez and made a pact with the Liberals. When in 1848 the Congress, controlled by the Conservatives, tried to remove Monagas, Liberal groups assaulted it on **January 24**. From then until 1858, an alliance between the Monagas clan and the Liberal Party ruled Venezuela. This period is known as the **Liberal Oligarchy**. Monagas was the new national caudillo. Páez took up arms against the government but was defeated. Imprisoned, he was expelled from Venezuela in 1850. During the next eight years, he lived in the United States. When the Monagas regime fell in 1858 due to a rebellion of Liberals and Conservatives, he returned. The union between both parties did not last long, and in 1859 the **Federal War** broke out. When the Conservative civil government could not control the revolution, a coup by the **army** brought Páez to power in 1861. In order to stabilize the country, he dissolved all public powers and became dictator. This period is known as Páez's Dictatorship. On one hand, he prompted some legal and administrative reforms and tried to reach an agreement with the Liberals. On the other, he persecuted constitutionalist Conservatives who disagreed with the idea of having a dictatorship (like **Juan Vicente González**, who was a former supporter). However, he failed. Gradually, the federal troops gained territory until the central government had no other option but to negotiate for peace, signing in 1863 the **Treaty of Coche**. According to this treaty, Páez renounced power but the new government had to respect his life and property. He could remain in Venezuela or go abroad. In the end, he preferred to establish residence in New York, where he lived out his last years. In 1869, he published his *Autobiografía del General José Antonio Páez*, which tells the history of his public life until the year 1850.

Páez had been married to Dominga Ortiz (1792–1875). Around 1821, he separated from her to start a romantic relationship with Barbarita Nieves (c. 1803–1847). However, throughout his lifetime, he had many mistresses. With Dominga Ortiz, he had two children, and three with Barbarita Nieves. But five other sons with different women are also known of.

PALACIOS Y BLANCO, ESTEBAN (Caracas, 1764–Caracas, 1830). Deputy to Cádiz Courts, brother of María Concepción Palacios de Bolívar, and confirmation godfather of his nephew **Simón Bolívar**. Palacios departed to Spain in 1792, where he received the young Simón Bolívar in 1799, influenced his education, and introduced him to Carlos IV and María Cristina's royal court. In 1810, he was summoned as a delegate to the Cádiz Courts, where the first Spanish constitution was discussed, and signed it in 1812. Palacios remained in Spain until 1825, when he returned to Caracas. Bolívar, now president of Colombia (**Gran Colombia**), once he knew of his uncle's return, wrote an emotional welcome letter, called by historians "La Elegía del Cuzco," in which he describes the horrors of the **War of Independence** and the desolation of his hometown **Caracas**.

PALACIOS Y SOJO, PEDRO (Guatire, 1739–Caracas, 1799). Known as Padre Sojo, he was a priest and musician. Uncle of María Concepción Palacios y Sojo, the mother of **Simón Bolívar**, he belonged to one of the wealthiest and most prominent families of the time. His passion for **music** led him to create, with the authorization of the Crown, the Oratorio of San Felipe Neri congregation. It was the origin of the **Escuela de Música de Chacao**, dedicated to cultivating sacred music. The academy had remarkable students, including **Juan José Landaeta** and **José Ángel Lamas**.

PARDO. Term of the Spanish colonies that, given the miscegenation in America, refers to the descendants of African slaves who mingled with Europeans and Indians. From the 17th century, it was used to identify a skin color, between white and black, but necessarily dark. Beginning in 1621, *pardos* were barred from public office and could not attend university. They were excluded from military service in the permanent troops in 1643, and in the militias they were forbidden any rank superior to that of captain. In 1776, they were prevented from marrying white people. The group provided what were considered low-quality works by colonial society, as artisans, *pulperos*, muleteers, and in general, all those skills obtained through simple and routine practice. This disadvantage tended, however, to improve in the late 18th century. In 1795, the royal charter "Gracias al Sacar" stimulated aspirations of promotion. The decree allowed *pardos* to acquire, after providing a specific amount to the royal treasury, the status of whites and, supposedly, all the rights the new condition implied. Nevertheless, creole white *mantuanos*, with whom *pardos* were almost always in conflict, reduced the effects of that Crown concession. The multiple restrictions imposed on the *pardos* during the colony did not prevent their demographic development. On the contrary, they entered the period of independence with a considerable increase, rep-

resenting about 80 percent of the Venezuelan **population**. The numerical predominance of this social layer has led to the defining of the period as the *pardocracia*. See also AFRO-VENEZUELAN; BEJARANO SISTERS.

PARIS ARBITRAL AWARD. Judgment issued on 3 October 1899 by the Arbitral Tribunal meeting in Paris. In 1897, as had been agreed to in the Arbitration Treaty of Washington, the **United States** on behalf of Venezuela and the United Kingdom on behalf of the colony of British Guiana had decided to submit the dispute on the common border to international arbitration, as a mechanism for amicable settlement. According to Venezuela's position, the **boundary** should be the median line of the **Essequibo** River, the eastern border of the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** at the time of independence in 1810, and applying the *Uti possidetis jure* principle as to territories owned. The position of the United Kingdom was based on Prussian naturalist Robert Schomburgk's 1834 map, whose lines were modified according to the British advance west of the Essequibo River for the rest of the 19th century. The ruling was favorable to the United Kingdom, awarding 159,500 square kilometers of disputed territory. Venezuela immediately protested on the grounds that there had been flaws of nullity in the decision. In 1949, a memorandum by Severo Mallet-Prevost, one of the U.S. attorneys who joined the defense of Venezuela, was published that described the details of the decision process and revealed the compromise between the president of the Arbitral Tribunal, Friedrich de Martens, and the British judges. The document served Venezuela as one of the elements to make a formal complaint to the United Nations in 1962. This event led to the signing of the **Geneva Agreement** in 1966, in which Great Britain and British Guiana, close to independence, recognized the territorial dispute with Venezuela and agreed to find a practical solution. See also GUYANA, RELATIONS WITH.

PARO PETROLERO (OIL STRIKE). In December 2002, the executive and managerial levels of **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. (PDVSA)**, led a strike in order to pressure President **Hugo Chávez** to change his policy toward the company. The strike generated serious consequences in the **economy**, such as failures in the domestic supply of gasoline and limitations in **oil** export. The protest was partially followed by other sectors of private business. The government was able, within days, with the **armed forces** and blue-collar oil workers, to restore operations of the oil company, so the strike weakened and finally lifted in February 2003. Then began a process of restructuring at PDVSA, starting with the dismissal of more than 15,000 workers, from board members to technicians and professionals with long experience.

PARRA, ESDRAS (Santa Cruz de Mora, 1939–Caracas, 2004). Poet, journalist, writer, and translator. She was part of the founding team of *Imagen*, one of the most important cultural magazines of Venezuelan history (1967). The author of collections of poems and short stories, in 1993 she won the Biennale **Mariano Picón-Salas** Prize. She also holds an important place in the history of Venezuelan **LGBT** issues because she was a transwoman. When she was already a well-known poet and writer, in 1978 she underwent sex reassignment surgery in London. After this surgery, she continued her public intellectual life.

PARRA PÉREZ, CARACCILO (Mérida, 1888–Paris, France, 1964). Historian and diplomat. Over the course of 30 years, he occupied diverse positions in the diplomatic service, becoming minister of foreign affairs during the difficult period of the Second World War (1941–1945). As such, he participated in the preparatory conferences for the creation of the **United Nations** and was rapporteur on the draft of the Declaration of Human Rights. Nevertheless, he is more famous for his work as a historian. In 1926, he located in Great Britain the archive of **Francisco de Miranda**, which was considered lost, and thanks to his efforts this was acquired by the Venezuelan state. He was the author of classics of Venezuelan historiography like *Miranda y la Revolución Francesa* (1925), *Historia de la Primera República de Venezuela* (1939), and his long biography of **Santiago Mariño**, spanning eight volumes.

PARTIDO COMUNISTA DE VENEZUELA (PCV). *See* COMMUNIST PARTY OF VENEZUELA.

PARTIDO DEMOCRÁTICO VENEZOLANO (PDV). Organized in 1943 by President **Isaías Medina Angarita** as a government party, ideologically located in the center right, and counting as a leading figure **Arturo Usler Pietri**, it was banned after the coup d'état of **October 18, 1945**, that initiated the **Trienio**, which overthrew Medina Angarita.

PEARLS. Europeans gained certain information about Venezuelan pearl wealth when on the third voyage of **Christopher Columbus** sailors gazed in amazement at native women carrying around their necks great quantities of the objects. In 1498, pearls were discovered in **Cubagua** and a year later were introduced to the market, basically in the Antilles (Santo Domingo and Puerto Rico) and Seville. Pearl fishing was the most important **economic** activity in the first years of the colony and was essential to the founding of the first cities in Venezuelan territory. Pearl fishing and the trade in **indigenous slaves**

related to the activity became so important that the city of New Cádiz became for two decades (the 1510s and 1520s) the most dynamic European center of the Caribbean after Santo Domingo. However, during the 1530s, the beds began to be exhausted and the city was abandoned. The **population** moved to new sites on **Margarita Island**, Coche, and Cabo de la Vela, but activity also declined in those places soon. During the 20th century, some enterprises worked to collect pearls, but operations ceased definitively in 1969 because the national product could not compete against foreign specimens.

PEÑALVER, FERNANDO (Píritu, 1765–Valencia, 1837). Statesman and politician, signer of the Declaration of Independence. In 1810, he joined the revolutionary movement in **Caracas** that began on **April 19**. In 1811, he was elected representative from **Valencia** to the **Congress of 1811** that drafted the first **constitution**, being named president of the Congress. During this period, he struck up a close friendship with **Simón Bolívar**. Between 1813 and 1814, he served next to Bolívar as a counselor. With the fall of the **Second Republic**, he went into exile to the Antilles, from which he sent supplies to the campaign in **Guayana**. In 1817, he moved to **Angostura** to take part in several state functions. In 1819, he was elected a deputy and sent on a diplomatic mission to England. In 1820, he was president of the **Angostura Congress** and in 1821 was elected to the Congress of Cúcuta, participating in the drafting of the constitution of **Gran Colombia**. In 1824, he was appointed governor of the **province of Carabobo**, where he faced in 1826 the separatist movement **La Cosiata**. In 1828, he was elected a deputy to the Convention of Ocaña but could not attend due to **health** problems. In 1830, he was appointed state councilor by the **Valencia Congress** and later elected a senator.

PÉREZ, CARLOS ANDRÉS (Rubio, 1922–Miami, United States, 2010). Politician and president of Venezuela in two periods, 1974–1979 and 1989–1994. He is remembered for his policies of natural resource nationalization in **oil** and **iron** during the 1970s, implementation of social policies, the standing that Venezuela reached in the international arena with the South–South dialogues, and the macroeconomic policies he adopted during his second administration. Coming from a **coffee**-producing family of **Tachira State**, he moved to **Caracas** in 1935 to study at the Liceo **Andrés Bello**. In 1938, he joined Partido Democrático Nacional, which preceded **Acción Democrática (AD)**. In 1944, he started **law** studies at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, but his political activities and the events of **October 18, 1945**, did not allow him to finish. During the **Trienio** (1945–1948), he was the private secretary of President **Rómulo Betancourt**. In 1946, he was elected a deputy to the Legislative Assembly of Táchira, and in 1947 a deputy to the National

Congress. Nevertheless, after the military coup of November 1948, he was detained and imprisoned. In 1949, he was sent into exile. Again in Venezuela to fight against the regime of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, Pérez was jailed and exiled for a second time. He joined Betancourt in **Cuba**, again serving as his secretary.

After the events of **January 23, 1958**, Pérez returned to be in charge of the reorganization of AD in Táchira. As well, during the elections of December 1958, he won his seat in the Congress for his natal state (1959–1964). His career as a legislator was interrupted as he was summoned by Betancourt to be general director (1960) and minister (1962) of internal affairs, where he had to face the ***lucha armada***. His character and efficiency in the ministry gained him notoriety.

Once Betancourt's term ended, Pérez returned to Congress as part of the AD fraction. In 1968, he was appointed national secretary of AD and member of the National Executive Committee. This long career within the party allowed him to run for the presidency in 1973. Under the slogan "Democracia con Energía" (Democracy with Energy), he was the candidate for AD and won the elections in December 1973. His government coincided with the boom in oil prices due to the shocks of the Yom Kippur War and the Arab Oil Embargo. This allowed him to start an ambitious program, known as the Fifth Plan of the Nation, and move rapidly toward iron (1975) and **oil nationalization** (1976). During this oil windfall, he declared the creation of **Gran Venezuela**, which he forecasted by 2000 would become a developed country. Some of the initiatives that characterized his administration were the scholarship program Gran Mariscal de Ayacucho in 1975. In the international area, he was an important participant, achieving treaties like the Carter–Torrijos regarding the Panama Canal, the support of the Revolución Sandinista in Nicaragua, and a significant positioning of Venezuela in OPEC and in the Non-Aligned Movement. His government also brought a sharp increase in **external debt**, a rise in inflation, corruption, and increased crime due to unsuccessful social transformation and allowing for uncontrolled entrance by migrants from countries like **Colombia**. By the end of his government, he joined Congress as a lifetime senator, without ceasing his political activities in the international arena. Nevertheless, his recognized labor made him a candidate for a second term as president, being elected in December 1988. This time he had to face adverse **economic**, political, and social conditions, along with an opposition waging protests and attempts by the military to oust him. He tried to make a deep market-friendly reform in what was called El Gran Viraje, opening the economy to markets (so-called neoliberalism), stewarding more competition, and supporting decentralization, the latter a policy defined

by the previous administration's **Comisión Presidencial para la Reforma del Estado (COPRE)**. In 1989, elections were held for the first time to elect mayors and governors by direct and secret vote. Nevertheless, one of the moments that characterized his term was the **Caracazo**, which occurred only 25 days after he assumed office. On 16 February 1989, a program of economic reforms (known as *el paquete*) was presented without full support from his party and included a rise in gasoline prices, which in turn led to a rise in public transport prices, which triggered a rise in violence in several places in Venezuela. The events undermined his popularity. Later, Pérez also had to cope with two military insurrections on **February 4** and **November 27, 1992** (the first led by **Hugo Chávez**), which were not fully condemned by society or democratic forces, showing the weakening of the political and social situation. The unpopularity of the partial implementation of his economic policies along with the loss of prestige of **political parties** reinforced an antipolitical movement with many supporters among the media, academy, and other elites. In that scenario, Attorney General Ramón Escovar Salom accused the president of mismanagement of public resources, which was approved on 20 May 1993 by the Supreme Court. The Supreme Court condemned Pérez to two years and four months of house arrest. In 1998, dissident parties from AD elected him a senator, but the dissolution of Congress in the call for a national constituent assembly by the recently elected President Hugo Chávez led him to leave Venezuela.

He was married to Blanca Rodríguez de Pérez, with whom he had six children. Pérez also had two daughters with his former secretary Cecilia Matos.

PÉREZ, JUAN BAUTISTA (Caracas, 1869–Caracas, 1952). Lawyer and diplomat, president of Venezuela from 1929 to 1932. A close collaborator with **Juan Vicente Gómez's** regime, he was appointed president in 1929 while Gómez remained as the **armed forces'** general commander. His presidency was a typical maneuver of the Gómez regime, without real power. However, Pérez had to face the impact in Venezuela of the Depression of 1929 and conflict with the **Catholic Church** because of the expulsion of Bishop **Salvador Montes de Oca**. These problems precipitated the return of Gómez to the presidency.

PÉREZ, UDÓN (Maracaibo, 1871–Maracaibo, 1926). Poet and dramatist. One of the brightest cultural figures of his land, his poetic works belong to the Parnassian and *nativismo* movements. From 1895, he regularly wrote for *El Cojo Ilustrado*. In 1909, he won a literary contest, and his poem "Sobre palmas" (Over the Palms) became the official anthem of **Zulia State**.

PÉREZ ALFONZO, JUAN PABLO (Caracas, 1903–Washington, D.C., United States, 1979). Oil expert, political and social scientist, politician, and diplomat. He is considered the father of OPEC. A founding member of political organizations ORVE and Partido Democrático Nacional, seeds of **Acción Democrática**, in which he was also a founding member in 1941, he was a close friend of President **Rómulo Betancourt** and a key reference in oil-related matters. A representative to the National Congress, he participated in discussions of the Hydrocarbons Law Reform of 1943, refusing to sign the law. In 1945, he was the secretary of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno** installed after the ousting of **Isaías Medina Angarita**, later becoming minister of development for that administration and for **Romulo Gallegos**'s. He set up the basis for **oil nationalization** by implementing the policy of no more **oil concessions** and obtained a higher share of oil profits for the Venezuelan government (50–50). In exile during the **military dictatorship** (1948–1958), he returned after **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**'s fall to be appointed in 1958 minister of mines and hydrocarbons in Rómulo Betancourt's administration. He laid out the roadmap toward nationalization with his "Oil Pentagon," along with the creation of the state-owned oil company Corporación Venezolana de Petróleo. In 1960, his efforts to establish an organization that convenes oil-exporting countries concluded with the founding of OPEC. He published several works on oil regulation and rent administration and was quite critical of the way the Venezuelan government handled oil revenue.

PÉREZ BONALDE, JUAN ANTONIO (Caracas, 1846–La Guaira, 1892). Poet. A central figure of romantic poetry in Venezuela, in 1861 his family decided to leave the country and stay in Puerto Rico due to the violence of the **Federal War**. Three years later, he returned but went into exile soon after when in 1870 he wrote a satirical poem against President **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. During the next 18 years, he lived in New York, traveling to many places around the world. While away from Venezuela, he acquired an extraordinary literary education, especially through readings of both English and German romantics like Heinrich Heine, Goethe, and Edgar Allan Poe. He translated those authors into Spanish, becoming one of their champions in Latin America, where they had been scarcely read. In 1889, he returned to Venezuela, where the educated elite paid him tribute. In national literary historiography, Pérez Bonalde represents both the summit of romanticism in poetry and the origins of the modernist movement. His works surpassed the traditional forms of composition and innovated in structures and motifs, keeping distance from the sentimentalism of his predecessors. His production was small, with only two poetry books published. The first one in 1877, *Esτροφes*, includes his famous "Vuelta a la patria." In 1880 came *Ritmos*, which

contained the “Poema del Niágara,” which was later printed as a single text in 1883. Along with the poems “Flor” and “Primavera,” “Vuelta a la patria” and “Poema del Niágara” are considered peaks in Venezuelan **literature**. In 1946, his remains were buried at the **National Pantheon**.

PÉREZ DUPUY, HENRIQUE (Caracas, 1881–Caracas, 1979). Banker and **businessman**. **Educated** in Scotland, Germany, and France, he first worked in New York in a department store, returning to Venezuela to lead J. A. Pérez and Co., the **commercial house** founded by his father. President and member of the board of directors of Banco de Venezuela (1917), in 1925 he founded and became president of Banco Venezolano de Crédito. He was the founder of the National Council of Economics (1946) and an advocate for **economic** liberalism, writing several works on economics, banking, and finance.

PÉREZ JIMÉNEZ, MARCOS (Michelena, 1914–Madrid, Spain, 2001). Military officer and politician, member of the Government Board between 1948 and 1952, and president of Venezuela between 1952 and 1958. From 1931 to 1934, he studied at the Military School of Venezuela in **Caracas**, and in 1936 he was promoted to lieutenant. In 1939, he attended special studies at the Escuela Superior de Guerra in Chorrillos, Peru. In 1941, he rose to captain. Once back in Venezuela, he began to participate in military lodges, organized by young professional officials in order to displace the old *genera-lato* who still controlled the **army**. Along with **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud** and **Luis Felipe Llovera Páez**, he was one of the leaders of the Military Patriotic Union (UPM). Taking advantage of the political crisis brought on by the elections that would take place in 1946, they planned a coup d'état. For the attempt, they sought an alliance with the party **Acción Democrática (AD)**, and on **October 18, 1945**, both groups overthrew President **Isaías Medina Angarita**. In the new government of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno** (Revolutionary Government Board), Pérez Jiménez assumed the position of army chief of staff and later of minister of defense, which allowed him to increase his control over the institution. By 1948, a new crisis between the military sector and the AD government generated a new coup d'état, in which President **Rómulo Gallegos** was overthrown. A military government junta formed by Delgado Chalbaud as president and Pérez Jiménez and Llovera Páez as members assumed the administration of the country, initiating the **military dictatorship** (1948–1958). In 1950, after the assassination of Delgado Chalbaud, his position was occupied by **Germán Suárez Flamerich**, leaving Pérez Jiménez as the key figure in charge of the government. After the hidden electoral results of 1952, he assumed the presidency until he

was overthrown by a civil–military insurrection on **January 23, 1958**. During his regime, the ideology called **Nuevo Ideal Nacional** was implemented, based on the transformation of the national environment in order to improve the human condition of citizens. This gave motivation to a systematic policy of construction of buildings, highways, and viaducts and quickly changed aspects of some of the main cities of the country, especially Caracas. Among these projects were the Caracas–La Guaira highway and the construction of the Ciudad Universitaria (the campus of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**), the Humboldt Hotel on the top of **Ávila Mountain**, and the cable railway of **Mérida**. Immigration policy favored the addition of Europeans to the **population**, mainly Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. Nonetheless, as a dictator, he maintained a policy of repression and torture of political opponents. During his government, the **Seguridad Nacional**, under Pedro Estrada’s management, was the main organization responsible for the imprisonment and death of several leaders of AD, including Antonio Pinto Salinas, Leonardo Ruiz Pineda, and Alberto Carnevali. The main opposition parties, AD and the **Communist Party of Venezuela**, were declared illegal and all their members pursued. The same occurred with the unionist organizations that had formed since **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s demise. **Education** was not a main objective of the regime, although it stimulated the creation of several universities and schools through private means, as in the foundation in 1953 of the Universidad Santa María and the Universidad Católica Andrés Bello. In 1952, an incident with the army of **Colombia** occurred due to military maneuvers at **Los Monjes Archipelago**. This motivated Venezuela to occupy the islands. There were also important improvements in army equipment and training in this period. Economically, the regime gave out new **oil concessions**, from which it obtained a tremendous income of 2,118 million **bolíva-res**. Production reached 2,210,000 barrels per day. After his overthrow, Pérez Jiménez took refuge in the **United States**, but he was extradited to be judged for embezzlement in Venezuela. He remained in prison for about four years. In 1968, he was elected a senator for the party Cruzada Cívica Nacionalista, but the Supreme Court invalidated his nomination. He was nominated for president in the elections of 1973, but the National Congress made an amendment to the **Constitution** in which no one who was condemned to more than three years for crimes committed during the performance of public functions could run for the presidency. After that incident, Pérez Jiménez decided to leave the country and settled in Spain, where he lived until his death. *See also* VALLENILLA PLANCHART, LAUREANO.

PERFORMING ARTS. The first theater performances go back to the colonial period, when in 1600 the town council gave permission to stage a

comedy. At that time, several books related to Spanish drama of the Golden Century came to the provinces, including works by Calderón de la Barca, Juan Ruiz de Alarcón, and López de Vega. Some plays are believed to have been written in the colonies. An example is the mystery play *Our Lady of the Rosary* (1767) by an unknown author. The practitioners were amateurish, and they played the pieces on improvised stages when social occasions warranted. In 1784, in **Caracas** the Teatro Coliseo was built, the first in national history, with a capacity for 1,500 spectators and a company of 20 actors. It was a key site for drama presentations until its destruction in the **Earthquake of 1812**. In the beginning of the 19th century, **Andrés Bello** figures as the first Venezuelan dramatist known by name thanks to his plays *Venezuela consolada* (1804), written on the arrival of the smallpox vaccine to the country, and *España restaurada* (1808), an allegorical drama against Napoleon's invasion of Spain. The political character of the genre remained during the **War of Independence** in both comedies like the anonymous *Morir por la patria es Gloria* (1811) and tragedies like **Domingo Navas Spínola's** *Virginia* (1824). Once Venezuela reached its independence, the Caracas Dramatic Company (founded in 1840) introduced the first romantic plays like *Cosme de Médicis* (1848) by Heraclio Martín de la Guardia. This process continued under **Antonio Guzmán Blanco's** regime, during which were constructed several theaters (Guzmán Blanco Theater, now Caracas Municipal Theater [1881], and the Baralt Theater in **Maracaibo** [1883]) and also manifold types of national dramas were presented, such as *A falta de pan buenas son tortas* (1873) by Nicanor Bolet Peraza.

In the early 20th century, the *sainete* appeared, one-act sketches of humorous motifs. In the mid-1940s and late 1950s, new institutions appeared that supported drama, including the Friends of the Theater Society (1942) and the Drama and Comedies Company (1939). During the 1960s, theater experienced a profound renewal under immigrant directors (Alberto Paz y Mateos) as well as actors (Juana Sujo) who settled in the country and through the proliferation of stages at universities and high schools. A governmental subsidy was also implemented. From this cultural environments came three of the most important dramatist of their time, called the "Holy Trinity of Theater": Román Chalbaud (*Los ángeles terribles*, 1967), **Isaac Chocrón** (*La revolución*, 1971), and **José Ignacio Cabrujas** (*El día que me quieras*, 1979). In 1971, under the leadership of Carlos Giménez, the Rajatabla theater group was founded, becoming one of the most important in Latin America. In 1984, the National Theater Company was founded. Since the economic crisis of the 1980s, drama has become a more private, independent, and, in almost all instances, unsubsidized effort. *See also* BALLET.

PETKOFF, TEODORO (El Batey, 1932–). Politician, economist, and journalist. A guerrilla during the *lucha armada* period, he left the **Communist Party of Venezuela (PCV)** in the late 1960s to become the leader and founding member of the Movimiento al Socialismo (MAS) **political party**, being nominated for president in 1983 and in 1988. A deputy to the National Congress in several legislatures, he served as minister of planning (Cordiplan) during the second presidency of **Rafael Caldera**. In 1969, he wrote *Checoslovaquia: el socialismo como problema*, distancing himself from Soviet communism. He is currently director of the newspaper *Tal Cual*.

PETROCARIBE. Alliance created in 2005 by **Hugo Chávez** to provide oil under preferential conditions to countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. It includes 17 nations and provides around 180,000 barrels per day to the region. This organization is part of the international strategy to create an alternative pole to globalization, a key element of the **Bolivarian Revolution**, and to ensure full support to Venezuela in international organizations, in particular the **Organization of American States**. *See also* ALBA; BOLIVARIAN REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA; BOLIVARIAN SOCIALISM.

PETRÓLEOS DE VENEZUELA, S.A. (PDVSA). State-owned oil company of Venezuela. In 1975, when oil nationalization was arranged, the Venezuelan government created a corporation to handle all nationalized assets and personnel transferred from multinational and local oil companies operating under the concessions structure. PDVSA is entirely owned by the Venezuelan state. In 1976, PDVSA started operations with 14 subsidiaries. From 1976 to 1979, a process of rationalization was performed, resulting in four remaining companies: Maraven (formerly **Shell de Venezuela**), Lagoven (formerly **Creole Petroleum Corporation**), Corpoven (formerly the state-owned Corporación Venezolana de Petróleo and other multinational and local oil companies), and Meneven (formerly **Mene Grande Oil Company**, later merged with Corpoven). Along with these, the petrochemical company Pequiven (formerly Instituto Venezolano de Petroquímica) and coal mining in **Zulia State** were placed under PDVSA. Under the leadership of General **Rafael Alfonzo Ravard**, the new oil company was able to be as competitive and efficient as multinationals were before the nationalization by establishing a corporate policy based in noninvolvement in local politics, personnel promotion based on merit (meritocracy), financial self-sufficiency, and professional management. Due to a lack of investment by concession-holding companies that caused production to decrease during the 1960s, PDVSA started in 1976 at 2.3 million barrels per day. New investments led PDVSA to reach 2.4 million barrels per day by 1979. During the 1980s, the company

started an aggressive plan of internationalization. PDVSA bought stakes in refineries in the **United States**, Germany, and Sweden and in the largest oil distribution conglomerate in the United States, Citgo. During this decade, production declined to 1.7 million barrels per day in 1985, consistent with commitments made by Venezuela in the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). After a change in OPEC policies, the company was able to use idle production capacity and ended the 1980s at 1.9 million barrels per day. By the mid-1990s, the Venezuelan oil business was opened again to private investors (Apertura Petrolera), and PDVSA partnered with leading oil multinationals to explore and produce in the **Orinoco Oil Belt** in eastern Venezuela and in other areas of the country. Technological developments by Intevep, the research and development arm of PDVSA, allowed for the creation of Orimulsion, a bitumen product that combines heavy oil with other components and can be used as an energy source at prices competitive with coal. A new subsidiary, Bitúmenes de Oriente, was created for this purpose. At the end of the 1990s, PDVSA performed a reorganization of its subsidiary structure, merging the companies to create business divisions for exploration and production, refining, and commercialization. The company ended the 20th century producing 3.1 million barrels per day, making it the seventh largest oil company and the fifth largest oil producer worldwide.

President **Hugo Chávez** arrived to power in 1999 and claimed more control over PDVSA's management and revenues, so political intervention mounted. In 2002, after the **Paro Petrolero**, an oil strike of executives, managers, and supervisors that paralyzed the oil industry for two weeks, Chávez was able to take full control of the company, laying off around 17,000 of the workers involved in the strike and replacing them with personnel favorable to the government. During the 2000s, the company diversified its customers from the United States (its largest customer since nationalization) to focus on China, with forward payment schemes, and Latin American and Caribbean countries (**Petrocaribe**), under financing schemes involving credit at low rates and long payment periods. In 2007, PDVSA became a majority partner in all the companies set up in the Apertura Petrolera process, while at the same time it brought over other oil multinationals from countries close to Chávez's international policy, particularly from China. As well, PDVSA increased its social spending and support of governmental proselytism programs, with major impact on its production levels and financial strength and on the overall Venezuelan **economy**. Disinvestment in such core areas of the oil business as exploration, production, and refining led to a decline in production below 2.7 million barrels per day in the 2000s. The government's need for financial resources for social spending plans led the company to increase substantially its debt, issuing dollar-denominated bonds, and to sell assets acquired during

its internationalization era. At the same time, PDVSA increased its debt with the Venezuelan Central Bank in order to obtain local currency, not backed with foreign currency, raising substantially the monetary liquidity of Venezuela. This financial and operational mismanagement, coupled with widespread corruption, put PDVSA on the brink of financial default by 2016, losing its status as a credible oil supplier.

PHELPS PRINCE, WILLIAM H. (New York, United States, 1875–Caracas, 1965). Ornithologist and entrepreneur. In 1896, he made his first visit to Venezuela in order to study the birds of the eastern zone, as the final work for his undergraduate degree at Harvard University. From 1898, he settled permanently in the country. In the first stage of his life, he devoted himself to **business** activities. In 1914, he founded Almacén Americano, a chain of stores with branches in the main cities of Venezuela, importing certain products for the first time to the country, such as Singer sewing machines, Underwood typewriters, and Frigidaire refrigerators. He also founded El Automóvil Universal, introducing the first Ford vehicles to Venezuela. Representing RCA Victor, in 1930 he founded Broadcasting Caracas, the first commercial **radio** station in Venezuela, which later became Radio Caracas Radio. In the 1930s, he retired from business to dedicate himself to ornithology. In 1937, he sponsored an expedition of the Museum of Natural History of New York to Auyantepuy. In 1938, he began his collection of birds (about 1,000 species), completed with his son **William H. Phelps Tucker**, also an ornithologist, in the custody since 1949 of the William H. Phelps Foundation. He organized about 100 expeditions that brought tremendous knowledge regarding birds, geography, flora, and fauna in Venezuela. He discovered more than 200 varieties of birds completely new to **science**. He published 78 papers on birds, including the work *Lista de aves de Venezuela, con su distribución geográfica*, printed in 1950, along with his son. One of the peaks of the Palo Yuca Mountain, on the border with **Brazil**, bears his name. In 1954, he was made a member of the Academy of Physical, Mathematical, and Natural Sciences. *See also* ANZOLA, EDGAR.

PHELPS TUCKER, WILLIAM H. (San Antonio de Maturín, 1902–Caracas, 1988). Researcher, ornithologist, and entrepreneur. In 1930, he helped his father, **William Henry Phelps Prince**, in the founding of Broadcasting Caracas, the first commercial **radio** station in Venezuela, later known as Radio Caracas Radio. In 1953, he founded the second **television** station of Venezuela, **Radio Caracas Television**, which broadcast in the open spectrum across the country until 2007. Along with his father, who was also an ornithologist, he published several investigations in which they described

more than 200 previously unknown birds, best portrayed in the work *Lista de aves de Venezuela, con su distribución geográfica*, printed in 1950. His collection of more than 1,000 species of birds, which were gathered during 100 scientific expeditions all over Venezuela, is part of the William H. Phelps Foundation, established in 1949. He was a prominent member of the Academy of Physical, Mathematical, and Natural **Sciences**.

PI SUNYER, AUGUSTO (Barcelona, Spain, 1879–Mexico City, Mexico, 1965). Physician, physiology specialist, professor, and writer. In 1899, he graduated from the medical school of the University of Barcelona, in Spain, and in 1900 he received his doctorate in Madrid. He was a professor in the Department of Physiology at the University of Seville in 1904 and at the University of Barcelona between 1916 and 1939. At the Municipal Laboratory of Barcelona, he devoted himself to scientific research in physiology. Militant for the Republican side, by the end of the Spanish Civil War he was exiled to France, and in June 1939 he was hired by the Ministry of Education of Venezuela to reorganize the teaching of physiology in the country. He taught at the **Instituto Pedagógico Nacional** and at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, where he founded and directed the Institute of Experimental **Medicine** and formed a remarkable group of disciples. In 1945, he founded the Catalan Center of Caracas, of which he was the first president. He adopted Venezuelan nationality in 1952. In 1962, he moved to Mexico.

PIAR, MANUEL CARLOS (Willemstad, Curaçao, 1774–Angostura, 1817). Military officer of the Venezuelan army during the **War of Independence**. The son of Canary Island immigrants, he moved to Venezuela at a very young age. In 1797, he participated in the **Gual and España Conspiracy** (1797). After its failure, he returned to his country and then traveled to Haiti to participate in the revolution on that island. After the events of **April 19, 1810**, he enrolled in the army in support of the independence struggle. In 1813, he participated in the **Campaña de Oriente**, showing great military talent. Along with **José Félix Ribas**, he was removed from his functions by **Simón Bolívar** and **Santiago Mariño** and forced into exile once the **Second Republic** was defeated by the rebellion of **José Tomás Boves**. However, in 1816, Piar joined Bolívar on the **Los Cayos Expedition**. Once in Venezuela, he remained in his role in the eastern area of the country and on 27 September 1816 triumphed at El Juncal, which allowed him to advance to **Guayana**. With the victory of the **San Félix Battle** (11 April 1817), the war changed its course. The route of the **Orinoco River** was now under patriot control, and soon **Angostura** was captured. But these successes brought the rivalry with Bolívar for the leadership of the revolution to life again. Appealing to racial

tensions, he proposed a government of *pardos*. Charged with rebellion, Piar was judged and sentenced to death.

PICO BOLÍVAR. It is the highest peak in Venezuela, with an altitude of 4,978 meters above sea level, located in the Sierra Nevada of **Mérida**, a part of the **Andes** cordillera. It is part of the Sierra Nevada National Park, created in 1952. The Pico Bolívar has been explored by Venezuelan and foreigner institutions since 1868 for geographic and geological purposes. The landscape was modified by glaciation on the top of the mountain. In 1935, it was officially given its current name. There are two routes to get to the top, named after the climbers who found them: the Peña and Bourgain route, and the Weiss route.

PICÓN-SALAS, MARIANO (Mérida, 1901–Caracas, 1965). Writer, historian, professor, and diplomat. Upon starting his studies at the Universidad de Los Andes, in his native city, and at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, he emigrated to Chile, where he obtained the degree of professor of history at the Instituto Pedagógico of the Universidad de Chile, and soon after a PhD in philosophy and letters. Picón developed close ties to the cultural and political circles of Chile, and in 1932 he was appointed rector of the Universidad de Chile during the socialist republic. In 1936, he returned to Venezuela to actively participate in the democratic fights of the moment. That year he founded the **Instituto Pedagógico Nacional** (today of **Caracas**). Picón also established the Directorate of Culture of the Ministry of Education, which preceded the Ministry of Culture and started modern cultural policy in Venezuela. He spent the following years as a diplomat and guest lecturer at North American universities, such as Columbia and the University of California. A close friend of **Rómulo Betancourt**, he returned to Venezuela during the **Trienio**, founding in 1946 the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters of the UCV. He departed abroad during the **military dictatorship**, lecturing in the Colegio de México and the Universidad de Río Piedras. When democracy was reestablished after **January 23, 1958**, he was appointed ambassador to **Brazil** and Mexico and, finally, secretary to President Betancourt. He passed away while creating the Instituto de Cultura y Bellas Artes, a government body to frame all state cultural policies in Venezuela. He wrote a number of books, becoming one of the leading essayists in the Spanish language. Among his works are *De la conquista a la independencia, tres siglos de historia cultural latinoamericana* (1944), a classic book used as a text in most universities across the continent; *Comprensión de Venezuela* (1948); *Miranda* (1946); *Pedro Claver, el santo de los esclavos* (1949); and *Los días Cipriano Castro* (1953).

PIMENTEL, JUAN DE (Spain, ?–Caracas, 1586). Governor and general captain of the **province of Venezuela** between 1576 and 1583. He arrived at Caraballeda in May 1576. From there he went to **Caracas**, which he chose as the capital of the province over El Tocuyo. During his governorship, the village became a town with about 300 Spaniards and 4,000 “Christianized vassals” who worked throughout the Valley of Caracas. Pimentel wrote the *Relación de Nuestra Señora de Caraballeda y Santiago de León*, which gives one of the main descriptions of the central zone of Venezuela in the second half of the 16th century. In addition, he made the first map of Caracas.

PIRELA, FELIPE (Maracaibo, 1941–San Juan, Puerto Rico, 1972). Singer. He was known as “El bolerista de América.” At the end of the 1950s, he started singing in Billo’s Caracas Boys Orchestra, but in 1963 he began his solo career. Along with **Alfredo Sadel**, he was the most important *bolero* singer that Venezuela gave to the world. *See also* FRÓMETA, LUIS MARIA “BILLO.”

PITTIER, HENRI (Bex, Switzerland, 1857–Caracas, 1950). Engineer, geographer, naturalist, and botanist. Around 1887, he traveled to America to settle first in Costa Rica and then in the **United States**. By 1919, he had settled permanently in Venezuela after two previous visits for work. He cataloged about 10,000 species for the National Herbarium. His major work, *Manual de las plantas usuales de Venezuela*, was published in 1926. Between 1931 and 1933, he was the director of the **Cajigal** Observatory. From 1936, he was head of the Botanical Service of the Ministry of **Agriculture**. In 1937, he succeeded in creating the first national park, north of Maracay, in **Aragua State**, renamed in 1953 as Henri Pittier National Park in his honor.

PLAZA, JUAN BAUTISTA (Caracas, 1898–Caracas, 1965). Musicologist and composer. He went to Rome in 1920 to study at the Pontifical Institute of Sacred Music. In 1943, he published 12 notebooks of the Venezuelan Colonial Musical Archive, rescuing Venezuelan colonial **music**, almost lost in disorder. Among his compositions are *Miserere* (1924), *Misa de Requiem* (1933), *Fuga Criolla* (1931), *Elegía* (1953), and *Misa litúrgica de la esperanza* (1962).

POCATERRA, JOSÉ RAFAEL (Valencia, 1888–Montreal, Canada, 1955). Writer, diplomat, and politician. His strong opposition to the regimes of **Cipriano Castro** and **Juan Vicente Gómez** placed him in prison for long periods. From these experiences, he wrote *Memorias de un venezolano de la decadencia* (1927), recounting the horrors of his captivity. In 1929,

he participated in the failed *Falke Invasion*. After the death of Gómez, he was elected a senator. **Isaías Medina Angarita** appointed him president of **Carabobo State** and ambassador to Great Britain. During the government junta chaired by **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**, he served as ambassador to the **United States**. His works also include *Cuentos Grotescos* (1915) and *La casa de los Ábila* (1946).

POLEO, HÉCTOR (Caracas, 1918–Caracas, 1989). Painter. He studied at the **Fine Arts Academy** in 1930 and seven years later had his first exhibition. Around the 1940s, he traveled to the **Andes Region**, from where he took the theme for his painting *Los tres comisarios* (1942). At the end of the 1950s, he settled in Paris and began a new creative stage: the poetic figuration. In 1986, he won the National Prize for Plastic Arts.

POLITICAL PARTIES. Conventionally, political parties are divided into two categories: historical parties, referring to those of the 19th century, and modern parties, those organized after 1936. This division is not exact, since some groups of the 19th century cannot be defined as parties according to current criteria, as in the case of the Partido Conservador; and as of the beginning of the 21st century, modern parties seem to have peaked, are considered traditional parties, or in many cases have disappeared. Nevertheless, this continues to be the usual classification to structure study.

The *historical parties* were the **Liberal Party** and the **Conservative Party**. The first appeared in 1840 from a group of people discontented with the hegemony of **José Antonio Páez**, who alternated with others in holding the presidency. Led by **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán**, as the crisis in **coffee** prices deepened social problems, the Liberal Party acquired a more radical discourse, making proposals like state regulation of the market to protect crop growers from their lenders, along with democracy and federation. Liberals named their opponens “conservatives” or “oligarchs,” and the regime an oligarchy as a whole. Even though such a group existed, they never called themselves conservatives but rather the party of order or the Constitutional Party. In fact, it is difficult to equate Venezuelan Conservatives with the classical Latin American models. The Conservatives were in general defendants of the free market, the *voto censitario* (right to vote based on property ownership), and centralism. But by 1858 they enacted for the first time the universal vote for men, and they established the law of freedom of religion in 1834. Socially, the colored sectors, slaves, small proprietaries, and merchants in general were Liberals, and the large property owners and merchants were Conservatives. When in 1848 the Liberals formed a government led by **José Tadeo Monagas**, they applied some of their ideas, mitigating the free market

and abolishing **slavery** in 1854. Nevertheless, it was after their triumph in the **Federal War** (1863) that they gained hegemony until 1899. In the beginning, they applied part of their project with the universal vote and the federal system, but once **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** took power, the vote was restricted until losing all significance, and the federation ceased to function in practical terms. Also, the social base of the party changed. Even though it continued to have large popular support, Guzmán Blanco stewarded the development of a new bourgeois that assumed the leadership of society. Yet liberal reforms continued to be enacted, like public and mandatory **education** (*instrucción pública y obligatoria*) and the secularization and establishment of liberal **law** codification. Working as a sort of unique party, it started to be called the Gran Partido Liberal Amarillo, since the color of the party was yellow. Economic crisis by the end of the 19th century affected the prestige of the party, which divided into many factions. In 1910, it ceased to exist when **Juan Vicente Gómez**, who had started political activity in its ranks, departed from it. In 1936, there was an unsuccessful attempt to revive it.

Modern parties were born in the 1930s, in the light of new ideologies, in particular socialism. The opposition to Gómez's dictatorship organized among exiles and inside the country founded in Mexico the Partido Revolucionario Venezolano (PRV) in 1926 and in Venezuela the **Communist Party of Venezuela (PCV)** in 1931. In Colombia, **Rómulo Betancourt** and other young people of **Generación del 28** initiated the Asociación Revolucionaria de Izquierda (ARDI) (1931). When Gómez died in 1936, these leaders could return to Venezuela and started operating clandestinely. Other parties were born, like Organización Venezolana (ORVE) and Partido Democrático Nacional (PDN). As well, *toldas* existed, in which followers of *gomecismo* and the later *lopecismo* (supporters of **Eleazar López Contreras**) looked to fight leftist movements; among them were Liga de Defensa Nacional and the Agrupación Cívica Bolivariana. On the other hand, after 1936, the Federación de Estudiantes de Venezuela (FEV), the nucleus of Generación del 28, had a brief period of existence. It was opposed by the Unión Nacional de Estudiantes (UNE), led by **Rafael Caldera** and Lorenzo Fernández, with a social Christian and conservative vision. This group evolved into Acción Electoral (1938), Movimiento de Acción Nacionalista, and Acción Nacional, forming finally the Comité de Organización Política Electoral Independiente, or **COPEI** (1946). During the Second World War, the PDN was legalized, which in 1941 took the name **Acción Democrática (AD)**. In 1945, the PCV was legalized. The government organized the **Partido Democrático Venezolano (PDV)**. When the events of **October 18, 1945**, occurred and AD took power, the dynamic of opening to parties widened, and in addition to COPEI, the **Unión Republicana Democrática (URD)** appeared, of democratic and

popular tendency, led by **Jóvito Villalba**. When the **military dictatorship** started with the coup of 1948, and with the ascent of General **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** to the presidency in 1952, members of parties began to operate clandestinely. Notwithstanding suppression, their political fight was important to strengthening the bases and perspectives of these parties.

After the ousting of Pérez Jiménez on **January 23, 1958**, parties had a key function in the institutionalization of democracy and, in general, in the organization of society. Unions, guilds, and student organizations became part of political parties. In addition, having control of the state meant control of the rents generated by **oil**, with the massive power that generated. The **Pacto de Puntofijo** (1958) was an agreement among parties to guarantee the stability of the democratic regime, but it also marked the beginning of a pact-based logic defined as *democracia pactada* (accorded democracy) or, in a pejorative sense, *partidocracia*. In addition, internal strife produced division. The most affected party was AD, from which Movimiento de Izquierda Revolucionaria (MIR), Partido Revolucionario de Integración Nacional (PRIN), and **Luis Beltrán Prieto Figueroa's** Movimiento Electoral del Pueblo (MEP) appeared. MIR was the first Latin American movement of parties of the same name (Peru, Chile, Bolivia, and Argentina) formed by radicalized youth of other parties who were inspired by the Cuban Revolution and started guerrilla warfare in their respective countries. MIR, jointly with PCV, created the Frente de Liberación Nacional (FLN) and the Fuerzas Armadas de Liberación Nacional (FALN). As the *lucha armada* was swiftly defeated, the loss generated divisions and ruptures in both parties. The most important division came from a group of communist youth and former guerrilla leaders who in 1971 separated from PCV and created Movimiento al Socialismo (MAS). With **Teodoro Petkoff** as leader, the party embraced a renewed vision of socialism that gained universal fame (currently as a social-democratic party).

Starting in the 1980s, with the crisis of the **economic** model based on oil rents, the parties entered into a phase of substantially declining prestige in society. Amid corruption scandals and the increasing inefficiency of state services, the parties were accused of being the cause of the situation, sometimes to an exaggerated extent. This generated an antipolitical trend whose first symptom was incarnated, paradoxically, in one of the country's greatest politicians of the 20th century, Rafael Caldera. He departed from COPEI, the party of which he had been a fundamental leader for 50 years, to win the elections of 1993 with a coalition of small parties and movements. In 1998, **Hugo Chávez** ascended to power with the promise of wiping out the political model, which he was able to do within a few years. Chávez led a coalition of leftist parties, sectors of the right wing, and the military sect of which he was a part, the Movimiento Revolucionario Bolivariano 200, named for

electoral purposes Movimiento V República. When socialism (or **Bolivarian Socialism**) was proclaimed in 2007, he tried to unify all the sectors within Partido Socialista Unido de Venezuela (PSUV). He was not able to do so, even though PSUV was finally created in 2008. The system continued to be multiparty, even though it existed in a climate of permanent conflict and hostility from the government. Even though the modern parties born in the 1940s were quite diminished, they did not disappear, while others appeared like Primero Justicia (PJ, led by **Julio Borges**), Voluntad Popular (VP, led by **Leopoldo López**), and Un Nuevo Tiempo (UNT), the first center-right and the other two social-democratic. A singular case is AD, which experienced a new surge beginning 2005, and as of 2016 had 25 deputies and 15 mayors.

POPULATION. Most Venezuelans descend from European immigrants, Amerindian **aborigines**, and Africans brought to the country as **slaves** in the colonial era. Venezuelans embrace a varied combination of inheritances. Historically, indigenous people, Spaniards, and Africans have contributed in diverse degrees to the ethnic and cultural composition of Venezuela. Subsequently, waves of European groups (Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish) immigrated to Venezuela in the 20th century, influencing many aspects of Venezuelan life, including culture, language, food, and **music**. More than half of the population has a mixed racial origin. About one-fifth of the population has white European ancestry, and one-tenth are blacks of African descent. The remaining populations are Amerindian. Nearly 85 percent of the population lives in areas of the coastal region of the country, distributed in many urban conglomerations (**Caracas**, Maracay, **Maracaibo**, and **Valencia**). Although almost half of Venezuela's geographical area is south of the **Orinoco River**, this region contains only 5 percent of the population. *See also* APPENDIX 3; APPENDIX 4; APPENDIX 5; AFRO-VENEZUELAN; *PARDOS*.

PORT OF SPAIN PROTOCOL. Diplomatic agreement signed on 18 June 1970, between Venezuela and **Guyana** suspending for 12 years the **Geneva Agreement** due to the impossibility of reaching a settlement regarding the **Essequibo Territory**. This protocol generated controversy in Venezuela. In 1982, when the protocol expired, Venezuela took the issue before the **United Nations** secretary-general.

PORTUGUESA (STATE). One of the Venezuelan states, located in the northwest of the country, with its capital in Guanare. It has an area of 15,200 square kilometers (1.66 percent of the country) and a **population** of 876,496 (2011 census, 3.02 percent of the country), divided among 14 municipalities and 40 parishes. The state has four landscapes: **Andean** cordillera, foothill,

and high and low plains (*llanos*). In 1530, it saw the first contact between conquerors and the Cuibas and Cayones **aboriginal** tribes, making possible fast penetration and settlement in the territory. In 1851, it was named a province, confirmed in 1856, and changed to a state in 1905. The average temperature is around 27 to 28 degrees Celsius but can reach extremes from 12 to 44 degrees. Economic activities include **agriculture** due to the fertility of the soil, wood exploitation (mahogany, cedar, and rain tree), mineral and **oil** extraction (especially in the Barinas–Apure oil-bearing basin), and fishing in the Portuguesa River.

POZO Y SUCRE, CARLOS DEL (Calabozo, c. 1743–Camaguán, c. 1813). **Scientist** and inventor. A royalist, in 1781 he participated in the movement of the *comuneros* of **Trujillo**. In Calabozo (present-day **Guárico State**), he developed his mechanical skills and his interest in physics to produce electricity. He built lightning rods that he distributed throughout Calabozo in order to avoid the dangers brought by storms during the rainy season. Despite not being an **engineer**, Pozo y Sucre read scientific authors and was able to perform many experiments and create many inventions. **Alexander von Humboldt** met him in 1800 and was impressed to see his self-made batteries, electrometers, and electrophones. In 1803, the Real Consulado of **Caracas** proposed him as director of public works, but this was rejected, as the position had to be held by an engineer according to existing city legislation. In 1804, he surveyed the lands of Calabozo and in 1805 was proposed to place the roof of Caracas's coliseum due to his "notorious knowledge." That year he also participated in the campaign of vaccination against smallpox led by Francisco Javier Balmis.

PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD. Although the category "pre-Hispanic" has generated controversy for its ethnocentrism, it is conventionally applied to the past of what is now Venezuela from the arrival of the first settlers about 20,000 years ago until the arrival of the Spaniards in the 15th century. The period is usually divided into three stages:

Paleo-Indian (20,000 BC to 5000 BC). Communities were composed of between 100 and 500 people. They were nomads and created tools of wood and stone.

Meso-Indian (5000 BC to 1000 BC). These were gatherer groups that lived in the north of current Venezuela, especially in **Sucre** and **Anzoátegui States**. There was incipient activity related to **agriculture** and ceramics. Some of these early people practiced seminomadism, and some were still completely nomadic.

Neo-Indian (1000 BC to 1500 AD). In this stage, there is major development of social organization, from which stands out the figure of the *cacique*, or leader. These peoples practiced agriculture, and they were a sedentary society. Most of them established commercial activity through barter and were familiar with pottery. They were located in the northeast zone of Venezuela, especially the **Andean Region**.

PRIETO FIGUEROA, LUIS BELTRÁN (La Asunción, 1902–Caracas, 1993). Politician, pedagogue, thinker, and writer. An ideologist of the *estado docente* (educator state) and democratic humanism, his thought was quite important to the development of the Venezuelan educational system during the 20th century. Devoted to teaching since his youth, Prieto founded in 1932 the Sociedad de Maestros de Instrucción Primaria, which in 1936 evolved into the Federación Venezolana de Maestros. Involved in the democratic fights of the moment, Prieto conceived of the school as one of the mechanisms for democratizing society. In order to achieve this, he proposed three major lines of action: (1) the supreme authority of the state over the educational system (*estado docente*), (2) the conversion of teachers into political and social leaders, and (3) the massification of **education**. A founder of the party **Acción Democrática (AD)**, he was one of its main leaders and ideologists. He was a member of the Congress, a university professor, and minister of education. Exiled during the **military dictatorship**, he worked for UNESCO in Costa Rica and Honduras, where he founded normal schools and taught at the Universidad de la Habana. Returning to Venezuela in 1958, Prieto continued his activities in the party, the legislature, and educational institutions. In 1959, he founded the Instituto Venezolano de Cooperación Educativa (INCE) to provide technical preparation for unschooled youth. When in 1967 Prieto aspired to the presidential candidacy of AD, a substantial faction opted for Gonzalo Barrios, as they considered Prieto too radical. As a consequence, he left the party and founded Movimiento Electoral del Pueblo, with whom he obtained an important 19 percent of the votes in the 1968 elections. Notwithstanding, his party lost strength in the following years and leaned to the left. He was the author of many works, among them *De una educación de castas a una educación de masas* (1951), *El humanismo democrático y la educación* (1959), *El maestro como líder* (1969), and *Principios generales de la educación* (1985). During the period 1959 to 1967, he led the magazine *Política*, an important publication of democratic left thought in Latin America.

PRIMERA, ALÍ (Coro, 1941–Caracas, 1985). A singer-songwriter of protest and traditional Venezuelan **music**, he is considered one of the greatest representatives of the new Latin American song. A militant first in the

Communist Party of Venezuela and later in the dissident *Movimiento al Socialismo*, after studying in Romania he returned to dedicate himself to political and musical activity. Many of his songs became continental hits, such as “Techos de cartón” (1972). He died in an automobile accident.

PULGAR, VENANCIO (Maracaibo, 1838–Caracas, 1897). Warlord and politician. Some of his actions were intended to achieve the autonomy of **Zulia State**. During the governments of **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón** and **José Ruperto Monagas**, he revolted and took power in that region. In 1869, his movement was almost a secession as he refused to obey the national authorities in **Caracas**. In both cases, he was defeated. During the government of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, he was appointed governor of Zulia and a diplomat. Later, he opposed **Joaquín Crespo**’s regime. He died in Caracas in 1897.

Q

QUINQUENIO (1879–1884). Second presidential term of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. During this period, the government adopted a European model. Guzmán Blanco instituted the **railroad** project, and customs and fashion were patterned on France. On 25 May 1881, “Gloria al bravo pueblo” (Glory to the Brave People) was declared the Venezuelan **national anthem**. At the end of this government, the country endured a great **economic** crisis caused by a drop in **coffee** prices. In **Caracas**, Guzmán Blanco started to be criticized due to the contract for the Caracas–La Guaira railroad project. In Congress, the leader of the *antiguzmancista* intellectual movement was Nicanor Bolet Peraza. Soon after Guzmán Blanco’s period was finished, he departed with the rank of Venezuelan plenipotentiary minister to several European countries.

QUINTERO, JOSÉ HUMBERTO (Mucuchíes, 1902–Caracas, 1984). Religious, humanist, and first cardinal of the Venezuelan **Catholic Church**. In 1926, he became a priest after earning a doctorate in theology and canonic **law** in Rome. In 1960, he was named **archbishop of Caracas**, and in 1961 he was elected cardinal. During his episcopate, an agreement or *modus vivendi* between the Vatican and Venezuela was signed, replacing the Ecclesiasticus Board Law of 1833. He was a member of **National Academy of History** and of the **Venezuelan Language Academy**.

R

RADIO. *See* JOURNALISM.

RADIO CARACAS TELEVISIÓN (RCTV). *See* PHELPS TUCKER, WILLIAM H.

RAILROADS. *See* TRANSPORTATION.

RALEIGH, WALTER (Devon, England, c. 1554–London, England, 1618). Voyager, writer, poet, and politician. One of the most important historic figures of the Elizabethan era. After he attempted to found a colony in North America, in 1594 he led his first expedition to the **Orinoco** and Caroní Rivers in order to discover the mythical Lake of Parima and the city of Manoa (a version of the **El Dorado** myth). He captured, looted, and burned the city of San José de Oruña and imprisoned the conqueror and governor **Antonio de Berrío**. At the same time, one of his lieutenants, Amyas Preston, also looted and burned **Caracas** (1595). Though he did not find the city of **gold**, back in England he published in 1596 *The Discovery of the Large, Rich, and Beautiful Empire of Guiana, with a Relation of the Great and Golden City of Manoa (Which the Spaniards Call El Dorado)*. This book was critical to the diffusion of the myth of El Dorado in Europe. In 1617, Raleigh undertook a second expedition. Once again, he was not able to locate the fantastic city. Instead of a discovery, the voyage was the beginning of a chain of unfortunate events: His lieutenant Lawrence Keymis attacked San Tomé de **Guayana**, where Raleigh's oldest son died. Due to this tragedy, Keymis committed suicide. When Raleigh came back to England, he was imprisoned in the Tower of London because the attack had broken the peace treaty with Spain. Finally, Raleigh was beheaded.

RAMÍREZ SÁNCHEZ, ILICH. *See* CARLOS, EL CHACAL.

RAMOS DE LORA, JUAN (Los Palacios y Villafranca, Spain, 1722–Mérida, 1790). Franciscan friar, missionary, first bishop of **Mérida**, and founder of the Seminary of San Buenaventura, the second institution of higher

education in Venezuela and the ancestor of the Universidad de Mérida (today the Universidad de Los Andes). In 1743, he joined a convent in Seville, and in 1749 he moved to the Colegio Apostólico de San Fernando (Mexico) as professor of theology. After being a missionary in Baja California, in 1783 he was appointed bishop of Mérida. On 20 March 1789, King Charles IV of Spain approved the Seminary of San Buenaventura following Ramos de Lora's request. He is remembered as a protector of **aboriginal** people's rights.

RAMOS SÁNCHEZ DE CHAMBERLAIN, EULALIA “EULALIA BUROZ” (Tacarigua de Mamporal, 1796–Barcelona, 1817). Independence heroine. The daughter of wealthy landowners who joined the revolutionary movement of **April 19**, in 1812 she married Juan José Velázquez. Escaping a siege of royalists, she headed with her 40-day-old daughter to the town of Río Chico through the mountains. The baby died on the way. In 1814, her husband was shot in the main square of that town. After the fall of the **Second Republic**, she and her family took refuge in Cartagena de Indias, where she developed a close friendship with the Buroz family (the reason she has been thought a member of that family). In 1815, she settled in **Cumaná**. In 1817, she married the British colonel William Charles Chamberlain, aide-de-camp to **Simón Bolívar**, settling in Barcelona. When the city was besieged by royalist forces, the Republican troops and part of the civilian **population** took refuge in the convent of San Francisco, also called Casa Fuerte (Strong House). Although they resisted for three days, the royalists killed them when they broke into the fortress. A popular legend says that in the middle of the battle, after seeing the dead body of her husband, she took a gun from his belt and shot a Spanish officer, shouting “¡Viva la Patria! . . . ¡Muerte a los tiranos!” (Long live the fatherland! Death to tyrants!). The rest of the royalists shot her immediately and then dragged her body behind a horse.

RAMOS SUCRE, JOSÉ ANTONIO (Cumaná, 1890–Geneve, Switzerland, 1930). Poet, essayist, professor, translator, and diplomat. Although he studied **law** at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, he developed a career as a high school teacher of history, geography, and Classical languages. He was a polyglot who spoke with proficiency Portuguese, Latin, Greek, Danish, English, French, German, Italian, and Swedish. Because of this, he also worked as a translator in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Nonetheless, he gained transcendence as a poet. His prose poems were an important innovation in the Venezuelan poetry of the 1920s, still dominated by traditional forms. Although his work was unappreciated during his lifetime, today his books *Trizas de papel* (1921), *La Torre del Timón* (1925), and *Las formas del fuego* (1929) are considered pioneers of modern Latin American **litera-**

ture. He committed suicide while serving as general consul of Venezuela in Geneva.

RANGEL, CARLOS (Caracas, 1929–Caracas, 1988). Journalist and intellectual, promoter of modern liberal ideas in Venezuela. He studied at Bard College, the Sorbonne, and New York University. Upon his return to Venezuela, he devoted himself to journalism. Director of the magazine *Momento* and professor in the School of Journalism of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, from 1969 he conducted with his wife, **Sofía Imber**, a **television** interview program on **Radio Caracas Televisión**. In 1976, he published *Del buen salvaje al buen revolucionario*, an interpretation of Latin America proposing solutions to the region's issues through the values of liberalism, away from the myths of the socialists and nationalists. In 1982, he published a compilation of articles entitled *El tercermundismo*.

RAZETTI, LUIS (Caracas, 1862–Caracas, 1932). Surgeon. He was one of the biggest reformers of 20th-century Venezuelan **medicine**, along with **Pablo Acosta Ortíz**. In 1884, he graduated from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, becoming its rector in 1908. From 1890 to 1893, he studied in Paris. Many of the operations he completed were firsts for the country. He was responsible for the revision of lectures on anatomy and surgery at the **José María Vargas Hospital**. In 1904, he was cofounder of the Academia Venezolana de la Medicina. Since 1982, his remains have rested at the **National Pantheon**.

RELIGION. Since the conquest in the 16th century, Venezuela has been fundamentally a Catholic country. In 2012, 75 percent of Venezuelans declared themselves Catholics, making Venezuela the fourth most Catholic country in Latin America. Nevertheless, this condition is qualified by two variables: the process of religious pluralization that the country is currently experiencing, in which many Venezuelans are abandoning the **Catholic Church**; and the traditional syncretism that has characterized popular Venezuelan Catholicism. Colonial society was organized under a system of *catolicidad*, which means that there was no differentiation between the principles of the Catholic Church and the secular norms of society. This gradually changed with the establishment of a republican and liberal order during the 19th century. The promulgation of freedom of worship in 1834 allowed for the private practice of Protestant groups among European immigrants. Similarly, in the 1820s, an important Jewish colony was established in **Coro**. With urbanization and social transformations fueled by **oil** from the 1920s, Catholicism underwent changes, as did all other traditional cultural values. The presence

of many Americans and West Indians working in the oil industry helped to expand Protestantism. Nevertheless, it was the Latin American Pentecostal movements that brought the great growth of the Evangelical population (as Protestants who do not belong to the historical churches are called in Latin America). As in the rest of the continent, the **economic** and social crisis, expressed in the sustained growth of poverty and violence, led many people to find a space for resistance in Evangelical churches. Likewise, the pastoral care in these churches, sometimes more active and close to the people than that of the Catholic Church, helped this expansion. Thus, in the 2010s, about 20 percent of Venezuelans are part of some Evangelical church. In the same way, the so-called *Santería* has grown, currently practiced by 1 percent of Venezuelans (although perhaps more, as many *santeros* consider themselves Catholic). The presence of numerous Cubans as a result of the relations between Venezuela and **Cuba** during the **Bolivarian Revolution** has fostered this growth. In addition, the syncretic character of *Santería* conforms to the syncretism present in Venezuelan culture, in which the presence of **indigenous** and African cults has always been combined with Catholicism. The most obvious example is the cult of **María Lionza**, currently influenced by *Santería*.

RENGIFO, CÉSAR (Cumaná, 1915–Caracas, 1980). Painter and dramatist. He studied at the **Fine Arts Academy** between 1930 and 1935. In 1937, he traveled to Mexico, where he came under the influence of Diego Rivera's muralism. In 1954, he won the National Prize for Painting and in 1980 the National Prize for **Theater**. His work is marked by profound social thinking. He was a defender of social realism and was against the new artistic wave characterized by abstract figures. In that sense, his themes are related to Venezuela's past and the problems of its society. Among his painting can be mentioned *Amalivaca* (1956) and *Creadores de la nacionalidad* (1973). On the other hand, in the dramatic genre, there is the **oil** tetralogy, composed of *Las mariposas de la oscuridad*, *El vendaval amarillo*, *El raudal de los muertos cansados*, and *Las torres y el viento*.

RENTIER CAPITALISM. Model of **economic** development that has as its fundamental basis the allocation and distribution of rent, which is administered by the state. The term was coined by Venezuelan economist Asdrubal Baptista. It is a system mostly financed by rents from natural resources, in the case of Venezuela, **oil** rents. These rents are the catalyst of the economy and allow for the expansion of public spending. The model is characterized by exporting a single commodity, scarce private investment, a production capacity that tends to weaken, and a society with low bargaining power that becomes

fully dependent on the rents administered by the state. Rentier capitalism in Venezuela has allowed, since the 1930s, for the dramatic transformation of a rural society, backward and unhealthy, into a society with large public investments across all sectors, including **health**, **education**, infrastructure, urbanization, and public services. These development levels are not sustainable as variations and market volatility generate periods of substantial economic development followed by deep economic crisis, becoming cyclical, while the whole society becomes rentier and ill prepared to face these cycles. In Venezuela, from the 1940s to the early 1970s, there was substantial economic development. In the 1970s, the country was taken beyond its capabilities by the boom of oil prices, and the deep economic crisis that hit the country in the 1980s and 1990s due to low oil prices hit an unprepared society. Then, in the 2000s until 2013, there was a period of economic expansion supported solely by high oil prices, followed since 2014 by the deepest economic crisis of recent Venezuelan history due to low oil prices and economic distortions accumulated during the preceding period.

REPÚBLICA CIVIL. The 40 years of the democratic system established on **January 23, 1958**, and lasting until 1998, characterized by civilian presidents, in opposition to the military methods of **Hugo Chávez's** government.

REVENGA, JOSÉ RAFAEL (El Consejo, 1786–Caracas, 1852). Lawyer, diplomat, and statesman. In 1808, he graduated in **law** and philosophy from the **Universidad de Caracas**. He joined the ranks of the independence movement in 1810 and in 1811 was sent by the Congress on a diplomatic mission to the **United States**, meeting with President James Madison and Secretary of State James Monroe. In 1815, he was appointed as secretary by **Simón Bolívar** during his stay in Cartagena de Indias. Between 1816 and 1817, he studied economics and **education** in the United States. In 1818, in **Angostura**, he cofounded the weekly **newspaper** *Correo del Orinoco*, of which he later became director. In 1819, he was appointed by Bolívar as minister of finance and foreign affairs of the República de Colombia (**Gran Colombia**). In 1821, he was sent to the Court of Madrid to negotiate peace, without good results. In 1822, he was sent to Britain to achieve recognition of the independence of Colombia. His mission included tax arrangements in Europe. In 1825, he was head of the Secretariat of Foreign Affairs and in 1827 was named by Bolívar his secretary-general. In 1828, he was appointed minister of finance in order to promote the cultivation of **tobacco** in Venezuela to pay off the **external debt** with its profits. After Bolívar's death, he withdrew from public life until 1844, when he was elected a deputy. In 1847, he was appointed chairman of the National **Bank** and in 1850 served as foreign minister under President **José Tadeo Monagas**.

REVENTÓN DEL BARROSOS 2. In December 1922, a blowout at the Barrosos 2 oil well leaked around 100,000 barrels per day for nine days. The well, located in the oil field La Rosa, on the eastern coast of **Maracaibo Lake**, was discovered by the Venezuelan Oil Concessions, a subsidiary of Royal Dutch **Shell**. The blowout revealed the vast potential of Venezuela as an oil producer, placing the country on the world energy map.

REVERÓN, ARMANDO (Caracas, 1889–Caracas, 1954). Artist. In 1902, he contracted typhoid fever, an event that has been interpreted as the cause of his future personality disorders, central to his artistic creation. In 1908, he enrolled in the **Fine Arts Academy** and after he finished his studies got a fellowship and went to Europe. There he saw Goya's pictures, an experience that would be important in his artistic education. In 1919, he met the Russian painter Nicolás Ferdinandov, who influenced him in his vision of art. According to **Alfredo Boulton**, his production had three stages, characterized by the type of colors he employed: the blue period, the white period, and the sepia period. In 2003, about 100 of his work were shown at the Museum of Modern Art in New York, and in 2007 the exhibition took place again, this time on a larger scale. Due to his constant concern with capturing the luminosity of the tropics in paintings like *Paisaje blanco* (1934), critics have considered him a “painter of light” and one of the best artists of the 20th century.

REVOLUCIÓN AZUL (BLUE REVOLUTION) (1868). Rebellion led by **José Tadeo Monagas** in 1868 that overthrew President **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**. It was an alliance of **caudillos** discontented with the pretensions of Falcón to establish control over them. The country was running into anarchy due to the large number of local leaders. This came coupled with an **economic** crisis and Falcón's administrative disorder. Since the Liberals used the color yellow and the Conservatives used red, the revolution took up blue, intended to express the union of Venezuelans, as blue is the middle color of the Venezuela flag. The Blue Revolution initiated the Government of the Azules. *See also* MONAGAS, JOSÉ RUPERTO; REVOLUCIÓN DE ABRIL.

REVOLUCIÓN DE ABRIL (APRIL REVOLUTION) (1870). Also known as the Liberal Revolution or Yellow Revolution. It was an insurrection made by a group of Liberals led by **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** against the government of the Azules. With the death of **José Tadeo Monagas**, the merger of Liberals and Conservatives that had brought him to power with the **Revolución Azul** broke up, generating political anarchy. Guzmán Blanco, who had to go into exile, organized the movement with old comrades from the **Federal War**, such as **Joaquín Crespo** and **Francisco Linares Alcán-**

tara. After several battles in **Valencia** and **Caracas**, he took power on 27 April 1870, giving the revolution its name. With it started a new period in Venezuelan history, led by Guzmán Blanco and known as *guzmancismo*, which extended to 1888. *See also* LIBERALISMO AMARILLO.

REVOLUCIÓN DE LAS REFORMAS (1835–1836). Insurrectionist movement against the recently elected President **José María Vargas**. Led by veterans of the Liberator Army, which did not recognize the legitimacy of a civilian in the presidency, especially one who had been outside Venezuela during most of the **War of Independence**, it requested employment for veterans, the reestablishment of the *fuero militar* (military privilege), and that **Catholicism** be made the state **religion** (freedom of worship had been enacted in 1834). Led by **Santiago Mariño**, the movement started with the revolt of the **Caracas** garrison, overthrowing Vargas and expelling him from the country. Soon after, **José Antonio Páez** opposed it, assembling a small military force and advancing toward the capital. Páez entered Caracas on July 1835 and established a government council, putting General José María Carreño in charge of the presidency and bringing back Vargas and **Andrés Narvarte**. In August 1835, Vargas resumed the presidency. Mariño and his followers took refuge in the east of Venezuela (**Oriente Region**), protected by **José Tadeo Monagas**. In November 1835, Páez decreed the pardon of the main leaders of the revolution, who were still fighting in the east. Most of the rebels ceased fire, but in December 1835 a group of rebels led by Blas Bruzual and Pedro Carujo (who arrested Vargas in Caracas) took Puerto Cabello and declared the port under siege. Páez intervened in the battle, in which both Bruzual and Carujo were captured. With the control of **Maracaibo** in January 1836, and then with the surrendering of Puerto Cabello in March 1836, the revolution came to an end. Afterward, Vargas, who was in conflict with the Congress majority, resigned the presidency in April 1836. The defeat of the rebels has been considered a triumph of civility, but really it contributed to the reinforcement of **caudillismo**, showing the importance of a strong warlord such as Páez to maintain stability.

REVOLUCIÓN DE MARZO. *See* CASTRO, JULIÁN; MONAGAS, JOSÉ TADEO.

REVOLUCIÓN LEGALISTA (1892). Armed insurgency started by General **Joaquín Crespo** that overthrew the government of President **Raimundo Andueza Palacio**. Andueza intended to remain in power through an amendment of the **Swiss Constitution**, proposing an extension of four years for the presidential term, although the Constitution stipulated his period should end

in 1892. In opposition, Crespo rose up in arms on March 1892 on his ranch El Totumo, in the state of **Guárico**, claiming the illegal pretention of Andueza and encouraging the restoration of law and order. The war soon extended to the rest of the country, and a large number of **caudillos** joined the movement. As the situation turned worse, in June Andueza was forced to resign and **Guillermo Tell Villegas** replaced him. The situation did not improve for government supporters, and in October Crespo finally took over the executive. *See also* HERNÁNDEZ, JOSÉ MANUEL.

REVOLUCIÓN LIBERAL RESTAURADORA (1899). Armed rebellion that allowed General **Cipriano Castro** to reach the presidency, whose regime was named the government of the Restauración Liberal. Even though officially it was a reaction to the constitutional reform of 1899, in reality it has to be framed in the severe economic and political crisis that Venezuela was experiencing. Exiled in Cúcuta, Castro seized the opportunity to enter Venezuela with 59 followers in what was named the Invasion de los Sesenta (Invasion of the Sixty). Showing military skills, Castro was able to reach the center of the country and defeat government forces in the Battle of Tocuyito, close to **Valencia**. This allowed him to enter **Caracas**, ending the **Liberalismo Amarillo** and initiating the **Andean Hegemony**. **Juan Vicente Gómez** was his second in command during this insurrection.

REVOLUCIÓN LIBERTADORA (1902–1903). Armed rebellion led by the banker **Manuel Antonio Matos** with the objective of ousting the government of **Cipriano Castro**. It was an alliance of several sectors that had ruled Venezuela during the **Liberalismo Amarillo** and feared being displaced by the new **caudillos** from the **Andean Region**. Namely, it included the new bourgeois represented by Matos, Liberal warlords and their troops, and foreign companies, in particular the asphalt-mining firm **New York and Bermudez Company**, which provided substantial resources for the movement. In this way, Matos was able to organize the largest army ever seen in Venezuela. Nevertheless, divisions among the rebel leaders and the poor leadership of Matos weakened the rebellion. In addition, the *bloqueo* (blockade) of Venezuelan coasts by Germany and Great Britain triggered a nationalistic feeling that Castro was able to use to his advantage. Castro, to face the blockade, left the command of the government army to **Juan Vicente Gómez**, who in a quick succession of battles defeated the rebels. In the siege of **Ciudad Bolívar** (July 1903), Gomez fully defeated the rebellion, closing the cycle of civil wars in Venezuela.

RIBÁS, JOSÉ FÉLIX (Caracas, 1775–Tucupido, 1815). Military officer and **War of Independence** hero. He was married to an aunt of **Simón**

Bolívar, Maria Josefa Palacios. Ribás was part of the group of *mantuanos* who planned the events of **April 19, 1810**. Immediately, he became a member of the **Caracas Supreme Junta** organized to rule Venezuela. In 1812, he fought with General **Francisco de Miranda** against **Domigo Monteverde**. The fall of the **First Republic** forced him to emigrate to Nueva Granada. In 1813, he joined Bolívar in the **Campaña Admirable**, being appointed military governor of **Caracas**. The most important episode in his military career was at **La Victoria Battle** (12 February 1814), where he defeated **José Tomás Boves** with a troop of soldiers with no combat experience, composed of students and seminarians. After the fall of the **Second Republic** in the Urica Battle, he resisted the troops of **Francisco Tomás Morales** with **José Francisco Bemúdez** in Maturín. Defeated, after escaping he was captured, betrayed by a slave. Subjected to numerous vexations, he was shot, his body dismembered, and his head sent to Caracas, where the royalist authorities fried it and placed it inside a cage on display to discourage the patriots.

RICAUORTE, ANTONIO (Villa de Leyva, Colombia, 1786–San Mateo, 1814). Neogranadinan army officer and independence leader. In 1810, he participated in the revolutionary events in Bogotá. In 1813, he joined **Simón Bolívar** in the **Campaña Admirable**. Between February and March 1814, there were several battles between patriots and royalists near San Mateo, an estate owned by El Libertador. The armory of patriot weapon was placed in the upper house of the property and its protection delegated to Ricaurte. On March 25, before the onslaught of the forces of **Francisco Tomás Morales**, and to prevent the royalists from seizing the weaponry, Ricaurte set fire to the powder, blowing up the whole armory and dying in the explosion.

RÍSQUEZ IRIBARREN, FRANZ (Caracas, 1915–Caracas, 1969). Military officer and explorer. In 1950, he was appointed commander of the Venezuelan–French expedition that reached the sources of the **Orinoco River**, which is why he takes credit for being its discoverer. In 1962, he published the book *Donde nace el Orinoco*, in which he narrates the events of the expedition.

RIVAS, BÁRBARO (Petare, 1893–Caracas, 1967). Folk painter whose street and biblical scenes were framed within popular religious art. In 1954, he had an exhibition in the Fine Arts Museum of **Caracas**, and in 1957 he was awarded in the Sao Paulo Biennale.

ROADS. See TRANSPORTATION.

ROCHE, MARCEL (Caracas 1920–Miami, United States, 2003). Doctor, researcher, and scientist. His **education** took place in France and the **United States**, where he graduated with a degree in sciences from the Philadelphia Saint Joseph College and in medicine from Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore. In 1946, he specialized in endocrinology and nuclear medicine at the New York Institute of Public **Health**. In 1958, he was named chairman of a committee to evaluate the performance of the Venezuelan Institute of Neurology and Brain Research, founded during the dictatorship of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. Roche proposed its reorganization because of its limited field study. The new proposal, the **Instituto Venezolano de Investigaciones Científicas**, focused on multidisciplinary and innovative research. Roche was appointed its first director. In 1958, he became the general secretary of the Venezuelan Association for the Advancement of Science (ASOVAC). He was founder and director of the Venezuelan National Council for Scientific Research (CONICIT) and of *Intersciencia* magazine, and also contributed to the launching of several scientific **journals**. He was a pioneer in the public understanding of **science** and the production of **television** programs and documentary films about science. He was an adviser to the World Health Organization and UNESCO. He was a member and chairman of the United Nations University in Tokyo and secretary of the World Academy of Sciences. Between 1958 and 1960, he was governor of the International Atomic Energy Agency. He was a member of the Council of the Pugwash Conference, which opposed the military use of the atom.

ROCKEFELLER, NELSON (Bar Harbor, United States, 1908–New York, U.S.A., 1979). **Businessman**, philanthropist, and politician. He was governor of New York (1959–1973) and vice president of the **United States** (1974–1977). He was also director of the **Creole Petroleum Corporation**, a Venezuelan subsidiary of Standard **Oil** of New Jersey, a company owned by his family. During the 1940s and 1950s, he made a series of personal investments in Venezuela, in nonoil areas, with the objective of promoting modern processes and managerial habits, introducing novel methods of commercialization, creating innovative marketing strategies, and improving industrial methods. Along with foreign and locals investors, he built the first American-style hotel in Caracas, the Hotel Ávila. Through the Venezuelan Basic Economy Corporation, investments were made in cattle ranches, the milk sector (Inlaca), consumer goods distributions chains (CADA), **banking** (Banco Mercantil), and laundry (LAV-O-MAT), among other areas. Local entrepreneurs such as **Eugenio Mendoza** and the **Cisneros, Vollmer**, and Maldonado families benefited from these projects.

RODRÍGUEZ, JOSÉ LUIS (Caracas, 1943–). Popular singer and actor, known as “El Puma” after a **telenovela** (soap opera) character. After starting as a bolero singer in the orchestra of **Billo Frómata**, where he was known as “El Califa,” he was able to garner international attention as a romantic ballad singer and soap opera actor. During the 1980s, he became famous across Latin America. He set up residence in Miami, where he combined his artistic life with **business** activities.

RODRÍGUEZ, SIMÓN (Caracas, 1769–Amotape, Peru, 1854). Philosopher and pedagogue. A member of a family of **musicians** and intellectuals, he was the brother of the musician Cayetano Carreño and uncle of **Manuel Antonio Carreño** and **Teresa Carreño**. Devoted to teaching, his *Reflexiones sobre los defectos que vician la Escuela de Primeras Letras de Caracas y medio de lograr su reforma por un nuevo establecimiento* (1794) is a critical piece of Venezuelan Enlightenment thought. While a teacher, he had **Simón Bolívar** as a pupil, developing a close friendship with the wealthy orphan boy. In fact, when he fled from his house, Bolívar was sent to live with Rodríguez. Upon participating in the **Gual and España Conspiracy** (1797), he had to flee Venezuela and never returned. He changed his name to Samuel Robinson and lived for many years in the **United States** and Europe, performing diverse jobs, such as typographer and language teacher. In 1804, Rodríguez encountered Bolívar in Paris while the later was traveling through Europe after becoming a widower. Rodríguez’s influence was critical during those moments of confusion. In 1805, when in Italy, he witnessed Bolívar’s **Oath of Monte Sacro**. In 1824, he returned to **Gran Colombia**, establishing a workshop-school in Cartagena, and from there he went to Peru to meet with El Libertador. In 1825, Bolívar appointed him director of public **education** of the recently created Bolivia to undertake a large program of educational reform. Nevertheless, his lack of self-discipline did not fit well with such a position, and soon after he had conflicts with **Antonio José de Sucre**. In the following 30 years, Rodríguez lived in several places in Peru, Chile, and Ecuador, performing several activities. But this was also when he wrote his most important works, such as *Sociedades americanas* (1828), *El Libertador del Mediodía de América y sus compañeros de armas, defendidos por un amigo de la causa social* (1830), and *Luces y virtudes sociales* (1834). In these works, he argued for original thinking to understand the American reality and for education based on **science** and focused on creating prosperity for the new nations.

RODRÍGUEZ DEL TORO, FRANCISCO (Caracas, 1761–Caracas, 1851). Republican army general. He was one of the signers of the Declaration

of Independence and of the **Constitution** in 1811. The Fourth Marquis del Toro, he was considered one of the main *criollos* of the late colonial period, and his influence continued after the republic was established in 1830. In 1806, he participated in the military actions that prevented the invasion of **Francisco de Miranda**. In 1808, he was involved in the *Mantuanos* Conspiracy, which led to his being placed under house arrest. In 1810, he supported the **April 19** movement. In the same year, he assumed command of the Army of the West to fight against the royalist reaction in **Coro**. He joined the **Congress of 1811** as a deputy. In 1812, before the offensive of **Domingo Monteverde**, he gave the supreme command of the army to Miranda. Given the imminence of the fall of the **First Republic**, he went to Trinidad, where he remained until 1821, when he returned to **Caracas**. Between 1823 and 1824, he was named intendant of the department of Venezuela. From 1825, he settled in the Quinta de Anauco, a residency that nowadays serves as the **Museum of Colonial Art** in Caracas. At that property, he entertained in 1827 Bolívar (widower of his cousin **María Teresa Rodríguez del Toro**) and from 1830 **José Antonio Páez**. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

RODRÍGUEZ DEL TORO, MARÍA TERESA (Madrid, Spain, 1781–Caracas, 1803). Wife of **Simón Bolívar**. Linked to **Caracas** society, she was a cousin of **Francisco Rodríguez del Toro**, Fourth Marquis del Toro. In 1800, she met Bolívar in Spain, with whom she was also related. They married in May 1802 in the parish church of San José of Madrid, immediately moving to Caracas. At their San Mateo farm, she became ill with a fever, identified today as malaria or yellow fever. She died in Caracas in January 1803.

RODRÍGUEZ SUÁREZ, JUAN (Mérida, Spain, ?–Las Lagunetas, 1561). Explorer, conqueror, and colonial governor. In October 1558 he founded the first seat of Santiago de los Caballeros de **Mérida**.

ROJAS, ARÍSTIDES (Caracas, 1826–Caracas, 1894). Historian, chronicler, antique collector, and doctor. Father of **scientific** research in national history and one of the main scientific disseminators of Venezuela. In 1855, he took charge of *Rojas Hermanos*, the editorial house founded by his father. He became the most prolific and erudite intellectual of his time, publishing studies on several subjects, including **literature**, **indigenous** culture, and seismology. Two of his works are *Estudios indígenas: Contribución a la historia Antigua de Venezuela* (1878) and *Leyendas históricas de Venezuela* (1890–1891).

ROJAS, CRISTÓBAL (Cúa, 1858–Caracas, 1890). Painter. He is considered one of the four classical painters of the 19th century, along with **Martín**

Tovar y Tovar, Arturo Michelena, and Antonio Herrera Toro. His works are characterized by intense drama, intimately related to his personal history. Rojas explored portraits and local historical events, also treating subjects like misery and death. His last paintings show an artist exploring aesthetic notions ahead of his time. These had a significant reception in the **art** salons of Paris and **Caracas**.

ROJAS, PEDRO JOSÉ (Cumaná, 1818–Paris, France, 1874). Politician and **journalist**. As a deputy from **Cumaná**, he was present in the Congress on **January 24, 1848**. Close to **José Antonio Páez**, his position against **José Tadeo Monagas**'s government sent him into exile. During the **Federal War**, his participation was key in the coup against **Manuel Felipe Tovar** and Pedro Gual that brought Páez's dictatorship (1861–1863). During that time, he served as minister, secretary-general, and substitute for the president. In 1863, he participated in the **Treaty of Coche**, which ended the war.

ROJAS PAÚL, JUAN PABLO (Caracas, 1826–Caracas, 1905). Lawyer and politician, president of Venezuela between 1888 and 1890. In 1852, he graduated in civil **law** from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. In 1854, he joined the Ministry of Interior and Justice, serving as manager in 1855. Between 1856 and 1857, he was governor of the **province of Caracas**. In 1868, he served as minister of the Superior Court of Justice of **Bolívar State**. In 1869, he was appointed minister of interior and justice, and between 1869 and 1870 minister of foreign affairs. As a supporter of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** during the **Septenio** (first presidential period of Guzmán Blanco, from 1870 to 1877), he was general attorney of finance (1873–1876), minister of internal affairs (1876), and a member of the Federal High Court (1877). During the **Quinquenio** (second presidential period of Guzmán Blanco, from 1879 to 1884), he served as minister of finance (1879–1884), and during the **Bienio** (third presidential period of Guzmán Blanco, from 1886 to 1888) he was administrator of customs at La Guaira (1886–1887) and minister of finance (1887–1888). In 1888, he was elected by the Congress as president after a heated campaign in which he faced Guzmán Blanco and **Joaquín Crespo**. The rise of Rojas Paúl led to the uprising of Crespo, who was arrested and imprisoned. The president pardoned the detainee after he renounced any political activity against the government. Guzmán Blanco was reluctant to agree and sought to control Rojas Paúl from Paris. Then a reaction against Guzmán Blanco started, and the government and Congress rejected agreements and contracts made by the former president with foreign companies and **banks**. In 1889 came the final separation: strong protests against the supporters of Guzmán Blanco, his statues torn down, and his properties looted. In 1888,

Rojas Paúl decreed the founding of the **National Academy of History** and became its first director. That year, the submarine cable from La Guaira to the French Antilles to Europe was connected. In 1889, the painting *Carabobo Battle* by **Martín Tovar y Tovar** was placed in the Oval Room of the Legislative Federal Palace. In early 1890, he provided support to **Raimundo Andueza Palacio** to succeed him in the presidency. Opposing the continuation claims of Andueza Palacio, he went briefly into exile. Then he served briefly as minister of finance (1899), president of the National Constituent Assembly (1901), and senator (1902–1905). Following his death, the National Academy of History left perpetually vacant the chair letter A of the institution, which was occupied by Rojas Paul, in tribute to his memory.

ROMERO, ALDEMARO (Valencia, 1928–Caracas, 2007). Musician, orchestral conductor, arranger, and composer. Born to a family of musicians, he learned to play guitar and piano during childhood. In 1947, Luis Alfonso Larrain contracted him as pianist of his dancing orchestra, one of the most important in Venezuela. There he showed his talent as a **music** arranger. In 1952, he moved to New York, where he organized a mambo orchestra and worked as an arranger to such musicians as Dean Martin, Jerry Lee Lewis, Machito, and Tito Puente. With the Venezuelan tenor **Alfredo Sadel**, he recorded important themes, such as “Alma Libre,” a duet of Sadel with Benny Moré. In 1955, he recorded his most important hit, the LP *Dinner in Caracas*, a set of classical Venezuelan themes arranged in salon orchestra style, one of the best-selling records in Venezuelan history. In 1972, he created *onda nueva*, a new musical style mixing Venezuelan music and jazz, with enormous success. In 1979, he founded the Caracas Philharmonic Orchestra, for which he composed several pieces of academic music.

ROSCIO, JUAN GERMAN (San José de Tiznados, 1763–Cúcuta, Colombia, 1821). Lawyer, thinker, and politician. In 1811, he was one of the writers of the Independence Declaration Act and of the first **Constitution**. The son of an Italian immigrant and a Venezuelan woman, in 1798 he filed a lawsuit against the Real Colegio de Abogados of **Caracas** in order to be allowed to exercise his profession as a nonwhite person. Once he won this legal action, he served as an adviser to the Royal Audience. Joining the events of **April 19, 1810**, he was a key figure in the transition to independence. Once the **First Republic** was established in 1811, he was appointed minister of foreign affairs. In 1812, he was imprisoned and sent to jail in Ceuta after **Francisco de Mirandas**’s capitulation. In 1814, he tried to escape to Gibraltar but was captured by British authorities and returned to Spain. Finally, he was liberated through the intercession of George IV, prince of England. In

1817, he published in Philadelphia *El triunfo de la Libertad sobre el despotismo*, a work of theology and **law** about the legitimacy of independence. This book is considered one of the most important ideological works to vindicate the Latin American independence process. In 1818, he joined **Simón Bolívar** in **Angostura** and participated in the creation of **Gran Colombia**. In 1819, he was appointed president of the **Angostura Congress** and vice president of Colombia. As a writer and **journalist**, he contributed to the *Correo del Orinoco*.

RUBBER. It was, along with **Balatá**, one of the most demanded products at the beginning of the car industry, in the so-called fever of rubber, between the years 1879 and 1912. It was found in the Cauca Basin and in the Alto **Orinoco River**. Its exploitation ceased around the 1920s due to the arriving of synthetic rubber and the strong competition offered by both Asian and African markets.

S

SADEL, ALFREDO (Caracas, 1930–Caracas, 1989). Singer and actor. His real name was Alfredo Sánchez Luna, but he changed it to a combination of his birth name and that of the tango singer Carlos Gardel. He participated in movies like *Flor de campo* (1951) and *Tres balas perdidas* (1960). In the 1960s, he abandoned the bolero and made an excursion into opera, a genre that he tried to establish in the country in the mid-1970s. Throughout his career, he recorded around 2,000 songs and 200 long-play discs. He is considered, along with **Felipe Pirela**, the most important exponent of the bolero in Latin America.

SÁENZ, MANUELA (Quito, Ecuador, 1797–Paita, Perú, 1856). Lover of **Simón Bolívar**. In 1817, she married the English merchant Jaime Thorne. In 1822, she met Bolívar in Quito, during his triumphal entry into the city. They began a romance that led her to follow him to Lima, El Callao, Trujillo, Alto Perú (present-day Bolivia), and Bogotá. Her prompt reaction during the events of the conspiracy of 25 September 1828, helped to save the life of Bolívar. After his death, she was banned entry to Quito, establishing in Paita, where she spent the rest of her life in a difficult economic situation.

SALAS, JULIO CÉSAR (Mérida, 1870–Mérida, 1933). Sociologist, linguist, ethnologist, and **lawyer**. He became a member of the Academia Colombiana de la Historia for his work *Tierra-Firme (Venezuela y Colombia): Estudios de etnología e historia*. From an interdisciplinary point of view, his books looked for solutions to the problems of Latin American society in order to enhance its condition. This can be seen in books like *Civilización y barbarie, estudios sociológicos americanos* (1919).

SALAS, TITO (Caracas, 1887–Caracas, 1974). Painter. After studying in Paris, he returned to Venezuela to become the most important painter of historical events of the 20th century. His works in the **Bolívar Birthplace** and the **National Pantheon** have been critical to building the historical imaginary of Venezuela.

SALIAS, VICENTE (Caracas, 1776–Puerto Cabello, 1814). Physician, writer, and **journalist**. He is considered the author of the lyrics to the patriotic song “Gloria al bravo pueblo” (Glory to the Brave People), composed around 1810 and declared the **national anthem** in 1881. He participated in the **April 19** movement of 1810. Being a close collaborator of **Francisco de Miranda**, in 1812 he was arrested after the fall of the **First Republic**. In 1813, he joined the forces of **Simón Bolívar** and was responsible of publishing the ***Gazeta de Caracas*** until 1814. While fleeing the onslaught of **José Tomás Boves** on **Caracas**, he was captured, sentenced to death, and shot. That year he published “Canto a la Acción de Bárbula” (Song to the Bárbula Action).

SALMERÓN ACOSTA, CRUZ (Manicuaire, 1892–Manicuaire, 1929). Poet. He is the author of several poems, including the famous sonnet “Azul,” considered one of the most beautiful poems in Venezuelan **literature**. His personal misfortune made him into a legendary figure, as he became infected with leprosy and died at 37.

SAN FÉLIX BATTLE (11 April 1817). Battle fought during the Campaign of **Guayana** in the **War of Independence**. It changed the tide of the war, as with this victory the insurgent forces, led by **Manuel Piar**, achieved control of the **Orinoco River**. The action led to the capture of **Angostura** and the missions of Caroní, wealthy in badly needed resources for the war effort. Guayana became the base of operations from which **Simón Bolívar** reorganized the republic and started several campaigns, the most important being the Campaign of Boyacá, which through the **Andes Crossing** gave him control of almost the whole of Nueva Granada. In Angostura, the Congress of Venezuela created **Gran Colombia**.

SAN MATEO BATTLE (February–March 1814). Battle fought during the **War of Independence** between royalist forces led by **José Tomas Boves** and patriots led by **Simón Bolívar**. The fight took place on Bolívar’s own sugar-producing estate, the Ingenio Bolívar, located in San Mateo, 100 kilometers from **Caracas**, in the current **Aragua State**. Boves led a social and racial rebellion and advanced from the ***llanos*** toward Caracas, and the objective of the patriots was to stop him at this location, previously fortified. After several weeks of struggle, on 25 March, Boves attacked again, defeating the patriots. During this attack, officer **Antonio Ricaurte** supposedly blew himself up along with the patriot arsenal to avoid having it fall into the hands of the royalists.

SANABRIA, EDGAR (Caracas, 1911–Caracas, 1989). Lawyer, professor, diplomat, and politician; interim president of Venezuela (1958–1959). A

graduate of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)** as a lawyer and from the **Instituto Pedagógico de Caracas** as professor of history, he taught at the UCV and in high schools. On **January 23, 1958**, he accepted the position of secretary of the government junta created to replace the dictatorship of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**. From 14 November 1958, to 13 February 1959, he assumed the presidency of the board after the resignation of **Wolfgang Larrazábal**, who was running for president. In his brief rule, three events are important. First, a free presidential election was held for the first time in more than a decade, won by **Rómulo Betancourt**. Secondly, he implemented the *Ley de Impuesto Complementario*, which established that the state received 60 percent of the profits from the **oil** business, leaving 40 percent to the concessionary companies. This ended with an agreement for 50–50 sharing, affecting future investment plans of oil companies in Venezuela. Finally, he sanctioned the *Ley de Universidades*, in which university autonomy was restored. He was appointed ambassador to the Vatican in 1959, then to Switzerland and Austria. He was also a member of the **National Academy of History** and the **Venezuelan Academy of Language**.

SANABRIA, MARTÍN JOSÉ (Caracas, 1831–Caracas, 1904). Lawyer and politician. In 1869, during exile in Curaçao, he sketched an **education** program inspired by Domingo Faustino Sarmiento's thought, in which education is seen as a way to social enhancement. In 1870, he was appointed by **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** as minister of development in the office in charge of education. Once in power, he implemented the "Decreto de Instrucción Pública Gratuita y Obligatoria" of 1870, a true milestone in the pedagogical history of the nation. He was rector of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** (1888–1889) and director of the **Nacional Academy of History** (1899–1901).

SANOJO, LUIS (Calabozo, 1819–Caracas, 1878). Lawyer and legislator, considered the father of national legislation. The son of Juana García and Candelario Sanojo, he graduated from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** with a degree in civil **law**. Nevertheless, his professional career also includes experiences on the mercantile side of law. His positions included judge of Ocumare del Tuy, constituent (1858), and secretary of internal affairs and justice and of foreign affairs (1858–1859). He was an important figure in the treaties to defend the sovereignty of Venezuela, such as the litigation for **Aves Island**. As well, he was a member of the legislative commission in charge of the preparation of the Civil Code of 1873, considered a landmark in Latin American legislation. Among his writings is the work *Comentarios al Código de Procedimiento Judicial de Venezuela* and *Instituciones de Derecho Civil en Venezolano*.

SANTA INÉS BATTLE (10 December 1859). One of the main actions of the **Federal War**. Federalists under the command of **Ezequiel Zamora** confronted and beat Conservatives led by General Pedro Estanislao Ramos. In mid-November 1859, Ramos's army followed Zamora's to **Barinas State**. Federalists camped in the town of Santa Inés, 36 kilometers southwest of the city of Barinas. Zamora adopted a defensive position and made a plan consisting of redeployment of outposts in order to attract the assailants to an area where they would be destroyed with a counterattack. The outposts were supposed to cause them the greatest exhaustion possible. Ramos, through an intricate standoff that resulted in a complete failure for government forces, endured numerous casualties. General Ramos, finally convinced of his unsuccessful venture, decided to order retreat at midnight of that same day. This technique is considered an innovation that prefigures modern trench warfare, so it has been studied in many military schools.

SANTANDER, FRANCISCO DE PAULA (Villa del Rosario de Cúcuta, Colombia, 1792–Bogotá, Colombia, 1840). Military officer and independence hero. A member of an influential family, in 1810 he joined the independence movement. In 1812, he sided with the federalists against Antonio Nariño during the civil war. In 1813, under the command of **Simón Bolívar**, he defended the Valleys of Cúcuta, but he refused to go to **Caracas** during the **Campana Admirable**. In 1816, he participated in the retreat of the patriot army on the Venezuelan *llanos* under the services of **José Antonio Páez**. In 1819, under the supreme command of Bolívar, he led one of the divisions of the patriot army, defeating the royalists at the Battle of Boyacá, which sealed the independence of Nueva Granada. In 1821, once Venezuela and Nueva Granada were united under the Republic of Colombia (**Gran Colombia**), he was appointed vice president with Bolívar as president. Later that year, when Bolívar left for the Southern Campaign, Santander was put in charge of the executive branch. In 1826, Páez disavowed his authority under the separatist movement **La Cusiata**. His thin support for the Southern Campaign, the resumption of control by El Libertador in Bogotá at the end of that year, and the closeness between Bolívar and Páez in early 1827 marked a definitive rift between Santander and Bolívar. In 1828, Bolívar suppressed the vice presidency and assumed the dictatorship. Santander was charged and sentenced to death for the conspiracy of 25 September 1828, against the life of Bolívar, but the sentence was commuted to exile. He lived in Europe and the United States until 1832. After the dissolution of Gran Colombia, he returned and became president of New Granada between 1832 and 1837.

SANZ, MIGUEL JOSÉ (Valencia, 1756–Úrica, 1814). Lawyer, politician, **journalist**, and ideologist of independence. In 1786, he was named first rap-

porteur of the Royal Hearing of **Caracas**. He was one of the promoters of the Academy of Public and Spanish **Law**, installed in Caracas in 1790. From 1793, he was a member of the Real Consulate of Caracas. In 1810, he joined the movement of **April 19**, and between then and 1811 he was editor, with **José Domingo Díaz**, of *Semanario de Caracas*, a weekly newspaper in which he presented the principles of liberalism. In 1811, he was named secretary of state, war, and navy. In 1812, after the fall of the **First Republic**, he was arrested and remained in prison for one year. In 1814, when the forces of **José Tomás Boves** reached Caracas, he joined the **Emigración a Oriente**. He died in December of that year at the Urica Battle. Between 1800 and 1802, he wrote *Ordenanzas para el gobierno y policía de la muy ilustre ciudad de Santiago de León de Caracas, cabeza de la Provincia de Venezuela* (Commands for the Government and Police of the Very Illustrious City of Santiago de León de Caracas, Head of the Province of Venezuela) in 10 volumes of manuscripts, which have been lost. However, his most famous work is *Informe sobre la educación pública* (Report on Public **Education**) of 1801. He was known as “The Lycurgus of Caracas” and as “the wise Sanz.”

SCIENCE. Scientific research before the establishment of Venezuela as an independent republic was in foreigners’ hands as **Joseph Gumilla**, **Pehr Löfving**, and **Alexander von Humboldt** explored the territory. However, there were other pioneer researchers in these days, such as **Carlos del Pozo y Sucre** and Narciso Esparragoza y Gallado. Although advances in this period were relatively few, **Baltazar de los Reyes Marrero** and **Francisco de Andújar** promoted science and established an academy of mathematics. After the **War of Independence**, several personalities emerged. **José María Vargas**, rector of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, in addition to promoting medical practices, facilitated the introduction of chemistry and physics laboratories at the university. With the birth of the republic, institutions to encourage scientific exploration, such as the **Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País**, were created, and among scientists José María Benítez, a botanist known for his work with the active ingredient in Peruvian bark, and **Juan Manuel Cajigal**, who from 1831 led the **Academy of Mathematics**, stand out. In addition, **Vicente Marcano Echenique** was a specialist in chemistry and in the study of plants, and **José Gregorio Hernández** and **Luis Razetti** made important contributions to the study of **medicine**. In 1895, Santos Aníbal Dominici, the discoverer of *Plasmodium* in malaria patients, founded the Pasteur Institute in Caracas. However, Venezuelan science was mostly influenced by the work of foreign scientists. **Luis Daniel Beauperthuy**, born on the French Guadeloupe Island, introduced one of the first microscopes, contributing to the understanding of the causes of Cholera, and the Prussian **Adolfo Ernst** was one of the founders of the Society of

Physical and Natural Sciences of Caracas in 1867. In the 20th century, other scientists excelled. A short list could include Rafael Rangel, researcher of rural anemia; **Enrique Tejera Guevara**, physician and pioneer researcher in the description of Chagas disease; Jesús Rafael Rísquez, scholar of schistosomiasis; Juan Iturbe, specialists in tropical diseases; Carlos Ottolina, inventor of a diagnostic method based on rectal biopsy; **José Francisco Torrealba**, who studied Chagas disease; and in the area of mathematics, Francisco José Duarte. In 1950, the Venezuelan Association for the Advancement of Science (ASOVAC) and, two years later, the lab for Medical Research of the Luis Roche Foundation were created. In 1954, **Humberto Fernández Morán** created the Venezuelan Institute of Neurology and Brain Research, which would become the **Instituto Venezolano de Investigaciones Científicas** in 1959. During the second half of the 20th century, science in Venezuela grew very fast. The Faculty of Science was created at the UCV, establishing a space where areas such as physics, chemistry, and mathematics were encouraged. In 1969, the National Council of Scientific and Technological Research (CONICIT) was established, and in 1979 the Minister of State for Science and Technology was created. Regarding the research field, advances in medicine emerged in studies of Chagas disease and anemia. In chemistry, petrochemical scrutiny and the development of veterinary and animal vaccination were encouraged. Institutes such as CICASI were also created to investigate coal and CIEPE for food and **agricultural** industry research. The Institute of Engineers was also founded in this period. Institutions created by the state include the Astronomical Research Center (CIDA), which operates in **Mérida State**, and the Institute of Advanced Studies (IDEA). Finally, a special mention is necessary for **Jacinto Convit**, the famous Venezuelan doctor who developed the vaccine against leprosy.

SCOTIST SCHOOL OF CARACAS. It was a group of four philosophers who wrote their works under the influence of John Duns Scotus's thinking in the 17th and 18th centuries. Its members were Alonso Briceño, Agustín de Quevedo Villegas, Tomás Valero, and **Juan Antonio Navarrete**. All of them were Franciscans, and their writings deal with theological and metaphysical subjects. It represents, along with Dominican and Thomist thought, the main philosophical school during the colonial period.

SECOND REPUBLIC. Name given by historiography to the restitution of republican institutions that **Simón Bolívar** and **Santiago Mariño** made at the same time between 1813 and 1814 as the heads of two different states into which the independent part of the country was divided, known as the state of **Venezuela** and state of the **Oriente**. *See also* CAMPAÑA ADMIRABLE; CAMPAÑA DE ORIENTE.

SEGURIDAD NACIONAL. A national police force in existence between 1948 and 1958. Using violent and repressive methods, it acted as an efficient spy organization supporting **Marcos Pérez Jiménez's** regime. From 1951, it operated with impunity under Pedro Estrada's direction. It was dissolved soon after **January 23, 1958**. *See also* MILITARY DICTATORSHIP; VALLENILLA PLANCHART, LAUREANO.

SEPTENIO (1870–1877). First term of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, lasting for seven years. It marked the beginning of the *guzmanato*, a period that extends for 18 years (1870–1888) in which the hegemony of Guzmán Blanco prevailed. A large number of public works were constructed, such as the first stage of the Federal Legislative Palace and the Municipal Theater of **Caracas**. The first national census was prepared. The **Universidad Central de Venezuela** was reorganized, and the Decree of Public and Compulsory Instruction was issued, which reorganized the entire national **education** system. The success of the **Liberal Party**, which began to be called the Gran Partido Liberal Amarillo (Great Yellow Liberal Party), was consolidated, and the government prevailed in its conflict with the **Catholic Church**. *See also* LIBERALISMO AMARILLO.

SHELL DE VENEZUELA, COMPAÑÍA. Subsidiary of Anglo-Dutch **oil** multinational Royal Dutch Shell. In 1912, Shell acquired from the **United States** firm General Asphalt the control of Caribbean Petroleum Company (CPC). Shell continued expansion in Venezuela, acquiring other companies such as the Venezuelan Oil Concessions (VOC) and Colon Development Company, all in the **Maracaibo Lake** Basin. In 1914, CPC discovered the first commercial oil well in Venezuela, **Zumaque I**, starting to export oil in 1917. But its largest discovery took place in 1922 by VOC, the **Reventón del Barrosos 2**, which made Venezuela a global oil player. Although during the 1920s U.S. companies led by **Standard Oil** of New Jersey, Standard Oil of Indiana, and Gulf Oil Corporation arrived in Venezuela, Shell continued being the most important oil producer in the country, refining the majority of the production in its Curaçao refinery, with a smaller location in San Lorenzo (Venezuela). This situation changed in 1932 when Standard Oil of New Jersey (since 1944 named **Creole Petroleum Corporation**), after successful discoveries and acquisitions, became the largest producer. During the 1940s, Shell started an aggressive expansion process of exploration, production, and refining in Venezuela, becoming a large integrated oil company, with no less than 33 percent of its global oil production coming from Venezuela. In 1949, a large refining facility in **Falcón State** started operations. In 1953, the group consolidated most of its companies under Compañía Shell de Venezuela, except for Colon Development Company, consolidated in 1958, and **Mene**

Grande Oil Company. Starting in the late 1940s and throughout the 1950s, Shell started an ambitious program to integrate with Venezuelan society, including corporate social responsibility initiatives in **education**, culture, sports, **agriculture**, and **science**. One of its most important initiatives was the *venezolanización* of management, which involved preparing talented Venezuelans to fill senior positions in local management. By 1960, Venezuelans held more than half of the middle management positions, and in 1974 the Venezuelan Alberto Quirós Corradi was named company president. After **oil nationalization** in 1975, Shell continued in Venezuela as a technical adviser to the state-owned company **Petróleos de Venezuela, S.A. (PDVSA)**, and ran a chemical **business**. In 1997, Shell returned to oil and gas as a partner of PDVSA in exploration and production in eastern and western Venezuela, as well as marketing lubricants and gas stations. This process was reversed in 2007, continuing as a minority partner of PDVSA in a western Venezuela production facility.

SIMÓN, FRAY PEDRO (San Lazaro de la Parrilla, Spain, 1581–Bogotá?, 1623). Historian and teacher, member of the Franciscan order. In 1604, he departed for **Tierra Firme**. Between 1612 and 1613, he traveled to inspect the convents of Venezuela. There he obtained the information that allowed him to write his *Noticias historiales de la conquista de Tierra Firme*, the first methodical study of the **Venezuela Province** in the national historiography. It was widely known for the first time in the country thanks to its publication in 1963.

SISTEMA DE ORQUESTAS Y COROS JUVENILES E INFANTILES DE VENEZUELA. Created in 1975 by **José Antonio Abreu** under the presidency of **Carlos Andres Pérez**, it is one of the most successful cultural projects of the country, and its fame has spread throughout the world. The institution is characterized by employing **music** education for children and teenagers as a means of human development. El Sistema, as it is known, uses culture as a tool to rescue young people from violence. *See also* DUDAMEL, GUSTAVO.

SLAVERY. Socioeconomic regime introduced by the Spanish at the beginning of the conquest and early colonization, practiced in Venezuela until 24 March 1854, when it was formally abolished during the government of **José Gregorio Monagas** (1851–1855). At its beginning, this system consisted of the enslavement of **indigenous** people and the subsequent incorporation of those groups into the productive system brought by the Spaniards. However, use of natives was short-lived for two main reasons, one formal and the an-

other practical. First, the enactment of the **Laws** of Burgos, or the first ordinances of the Indies (1512), provided royal protection to indigenous people as the king's vassals. Second, enslavement declined because the hardness of the labor had reduced the native **population**. Settlers requested that the monarchy allow the slave trade as a viable alternative solution. Thus, the first form of slavery was to subdue the indigenous people into activities linked to the **pearl** trade, abundant in **Cubagua** and surroundings, and the small **mining** activities on the western shores. However, sea oyster concentrations declined because of the intense activity of the Spaniards, so farming gradually attracted the attention of the colonists, following the few gains that resulted from mining. The introduction of black slaves to Venezuela has its origin in the contracts signed in 1523 by the **Welser** family with European slavers for the introduction of 100 slaves to work in mining and pearl fishing. Years later, and with the decline of this activity in Venezuela, the slaves were assigned to **agricultural** and livestock tasks. The new landowners used slave labor to farm **tobacco**, indigo, and **cocoa**. During the heyday of the tobacco and cocoa industries, from the mid-17th century to the late 18th century, slavery as a socioeconomic regime saw its greatest intensity, development, and prosperity, as it supported the colonial **economic** system. In those years, the introduction of slaves reached its peak, both within the legal system and as contraband. However, the Spanish American colonial crisis had close ties with the sustained decline of slavery, as waged and released labor came to dominate the New World economic system.

During the time of independence, the need for soldiers forced recruitment of slaves on both sides. This practice severely weakened the regime because the contenders promised release in order to spur enlistment for their sides. This policy was more successful for the republican party led by **Simón Bolívar**, who decreed in 1816 the partial abolition of slavery and in 1821 the Law on Free Birth. In the early years of the republic, this decree of Bolívar was attenuated by the penalty on slave traffic and marketing in national territory and manumission. However, those were crucial steps toward full abolition. The **War of Independence** also brought three other important changes: the dispersion of the workforce enslaved by military actions, the ruin of the plantation system, and a new political system that recognized different social and economic realities. All of the above led to the fall of the slavery system, formally decreed in 1854.

SOCIEDAD ECONÓMICA DE AMIGOS DEL PAÍS. Institution founded in 1829 by General **José Antonio Páez**, then superior civil and military chief of Venezuela. It had the role of devising and introducing concrete measures to improve development based on the liberal model. The group consisted of

intellectuals who sought to reverse the **economic**, social, and institutional damage caused by the **War of Independence** and the collapse of the Spanish regime.

SOJO, VICENTE EMILIO (Guatire, 1887–Caracas, 1974). Musicologist, educator, and composer. He is considered one of the principal creators of modern **music** in Venezuela. He helped found the choral group Orfeón Lamas, which stimulated public interest in music by bringing back old colonial compositions. He compiled and harmonized more than 200 popular and folkloric songs for that chorus. In 1930, he helped found the Orquesta Sinfónica Venezuela, becoming its first director. Also politically active, he was one of the founders of **Accion Democrática**, being elected a senator in 1958 and 1963.

SOTO, JESÚS (Ciudad Bolívar, 1923–París, France, 2005). Plastic artist. In 1942, he studied at the Escuela de Artes Plásticas y Aplicadas, and in 1950, after graduating, he went to Paris with a fellowship given by the government. There he abandoned figurative painting and started looking for new artistic routes. In 1953, he participated in the exhibition *The Movement* in the Denise René Gallery together with Victor Vasareli, Alexander Calder, Marcel Duchamp, and others. In 1957, he installed the *Penetrables* at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. His work earned him much acclaim, and he received the UNESCO Picasso Medal in 1990. Along with **Carlos Cruz Diez** and **Alejandro Otero**, he represents the most important exponent of kinetic **art** in Venezuela and is one of the few who contributed universally to its configuration. One of his works, *Esfera de Caracas* (Sphere of Caracas), located in a prominent place, is an icon of the city.

SOUBLETTE, CARLOS (La Guaira, 1789–Caracas, 1870). Politician and military officer, president of Venezuela between 1837 and 1839 and between 1843 and 1847. In 1810, he took up arms, fighting in 1811 under the orders of **Francisco de Miranda** in the Rebellion of **Valencia**. With the fall of the **First Republic**, he was sent to prison in the castle of Puerto Cabello. Released in 1813, he was named general secretary to **José Félix Ribas**, then military governor of **Caracas**. In 1814, after the fall of the **Second Republic**, he moved to Nueva Granada, where he participated in some battles next to **Simón Bolívar**. In 1815, he emigrated to the Antilles and in 1816 participated into the **Los Cayos Expedition**. On 2 January 1817, Bolívar named him a member of the Order of Liberators of Venezuela. That year he went to **Guayana** and took an active part in the liberation of that province. In 1819, he participated in the Battle of Boyacá. In 1822, during the Campaign of

Coro, he suffered one of the last defeats of the patriots at Dabajuro. In 1825, he was named secretary of war and navy for **Gran Colombia**, a position that he kept when Venezuela separated from the union in 1830 to form an autonomous country. From then, he became a close collaborator with **José Antonio Páez**. In 1837, he was elected vice president of Venezuela and assumed the presidency after **José María Vargas** resigned as a result of the **Revolución de las Reformas**. In 1842, he won the election and became president between 1843 and 1847. It was a difficult period, in which a fall in **coffee** prices unleashed a great **economic** and political crisis. He had to face an intense opposition campaign by the **Liberal Party** and several farmers' rebellions. One of them, in the electoral year of 1846, allowed him to remove from the presidential race **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán**, a Liberal candidate, accused of participating in the uprising. Consequently, he handed the presidency to **José Tadeo Monagas**, a candidate of the **Conservative Party**. Monagas broke with this party to form a government with the Liberals, and after the events of **January 24, 1848**, Soublette joined the uprising of Páez. Defeated, he was in exile for 10 years. He returned after the **Revolución de Marzo**. When the Conservatives regained power in 1859, he returned to occupy positions of command in the **army**, thus participating in the **Federal War**. In 1861, he became secretary of state. With the triumph of the Liberals, he retired from public life. In 1868, he entered again into politics, supporting the regime of the **Revolución Azul**.

SPIRA, JORGE (Speyer, Germany, 1500–Coro, 1540). Governor and general captain of the **province of Venezuela** between 1535 and 1540. His real name was Georg Hohermut, but he was also known as George Speyer. He was placed by the **Welser** family at the head of a group of colonizers who landed in Santa Ana de **Coro** in 1535. Between 1535 and 1538, he traveled in the southwest of Venezuela and the northeast of **Colombia** in search of **El Dorado**, in the company of **Nicolaus Federmann** and **Phillipp von Hutten**. From Coro, they arrived at the village of Riohacha, in present-day Colombia, and continued along the eastern flank of the Perijá Mountain Range. They penetrated into the territory of the Chibchas but returned to Coro with empty hands.

STANDARD OIL DE VENEZUELA. *See* CREOLE PETROLEUM CORPORATION.

STUDENT MOVEMENT. On 28 May 2007, as a result of the closure of **Radio Caracas Television**, an editorial TV channel critical of President **Hugo Chávez**, demonstrations began at public and private universities, both

in **Caracas** and throughout the country. These activities of thousands of students led the Venezuelan political agenda until the end of the year, and they were a decisive factor in the electoral defeat of the 2007 constitutional referendum, which Chávez had proposed. Young leaders emerged, such as David Smolansky, Freddy Guevara, Stalin González, and Yon Goicoechea, some of them already holding public office.

SUÁREZ FLAMERICH, GERMÁN (Caracas, 1907–Caracas, 1990). Lawyer and politician, interim president of Venezuela (1950–1952). In 1950, he was appointed by **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** to fill the position of president of the governing junta, empty after **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**'s assassination. He held the post until 1952, when Pérez Jiménez finally dissolved the board and assumed the presidency.

SUCRE (STATE). One of the Venezuelan states, located in the northeast and with its capital at **Cumaná**. It has an area of 11,800 square kilometers (1.29 percent of the country) and a **population** of 896,291 (2011 census, 3.09 percent of the country) in 15 municipalities and 55 parishes. In 1864, the Federal Constitution changed its name from the **province of Cumaná** to **Nueva Andalucía** State. After several changes, in 1909, it gained its current name, honoring the independence hero **Antonio José de Sucre**. The landscape has two main features: the eastern littoral Serranía, part of the eastern section of the coastal mountain system, and the Orinoco–San Juan delta. Sucre's **economy** is based on **agriculture**, fishing (sardines, oysters, small sharks), gas and **oil** resources, and mineral resources like salt, gypsum, clay, sand, and sulphur.

SUCRE, ANTONIO JOSÉ DE (Cumaná, 1795–Berruecos, Colombia, 1830). Military officer, politician, and independence leader. He was named *gran mariscal de Ayacucho* (grand marshal of Ayacucho) after his victory in that battle in 1824 and was president of Bolivia (1826–1828). His parents were Lieutenant Vicente Sucre y Urbaneja and María Manuela de Alcalá. Throughout his childhood, he lived under a rigid military regime, exposed to it at an early age by his father. He was therefore sent to **Caracas** in 1808 to study military **engineering**, under the protection of his godfather, Antonio Patricio Alcalá, and military and technical guidance under José Mires. By 1810, and with the rank of cadet in the Noble Compañía de Húsares de Fernando VII, he returned to **Cumaná**, a city that had accepted the establishment of the **Caracas Supreme Junta**. He began serving the junta of Cumaná and received the rank of second lieutenant in the Cuerpo Reglado de Milicias del Ejército de Oriente, while the junta of Caracas named him a lieutenant in the Military Engineers Group. In 1812, he was raised to the rank of major by

Francisco de Miranda. After the **Capitulation of San Mateo**, he traveled to Cartagena. Once the city fell into the hands of **Pablo Morillo**, he went into exile in Haiti and **Trinidad**. He met with **José Francisco Bermúdez** in Paria, and from 1817 to 1820 he filled several military functions in the republican army. In 1821, **Simón Bolívar** named him commander of the Southern Army in order to free Pasto and Popayán. Subsequently, he managed to incorporate Guayaquil into **Gran Colombia**. In 1822, he obtained a great victory in the Battle of Pichincha, with which the province of Quito was also released and incorporated into the republic. After this, he was appointed as head of the United Army of Peru and Colombia. On 9 December 1824, he obtained a historic triumph at the Battle of Ayacucho. With this event, the independence of South America was sealed. As a result of this victory, he received the title of grand marshal of Ayacucho. In February 1825, he entered Alto Perú, soon the Republic of Bolívar, later called Bolivia. Sucre became its first president. In 1828, after an attempt on his life that made his left arm almost unusable, he returned to Colombia. When war started with Peru, he assumed the leadership of the Colombian troops, obtaining another great victory in the Battle of Tarqui. He was appointed president of the Admirable Congress in 1830, and after he heard about the resignation of the Libertador from the presidency of Colombia, he departed from Pasto to join his family in Quito. He was ambushed and killed in Berruecos. Sucre was married in 1828 to Mariana Carcelén de Guevara y Larrea, Marquise of Solana, a native of Quito, with whom he had a daughter.

SWISS CONSTITUTION (1881). Name commonly given to the **constitution** approved by the Congress on 4 April 1881, by request of president **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**. Guzmán Blanco's purpose was to eliminate all personality cults that could jeopardize his influence over Venezuela. He wanted to concentrate power in his hands, wresting power from local **caudillos**. The territorial division of Venezuela changed from 20 to nine states, and the Federal Council was created.

T

TÁCHIRA (STATE). One of the Venezuelan states, located in the **Andean Region**, with its capital at **San Cristobal**. It has an area of 11,100 square kilometers (1.2 percent of the country) and a **population** of 1,186,908 (2011 census, 4.10 percent of the county) divided among 29 municipalities and 59 parishes. In 1856, it started as the autonomous province of Táchira, separating its territory of the **province of Mérida**. In 1863, it was converted to a state with the advent of the federal regime. During the second half of the 19th century, it experienced major **economic** and population growth due to the expansion of the **coffee** economy in its mountains. This allowed for the growth of a rural middle class that would be key in the next century: between 1899 and 1994, Tachira gave Venezuela seven presidents. In 1899, when **Cipriano Castro** took **Caracas**, the regional **Andean Hegemony** began, in which a *tachirenses* military officer governed until 1945. After this, a *tachirenses* military officer came to power through a coup (**Marcos Pérez Jiménez**, 1948–1958) and two by democratic means (**Carlos Andrés Pérez**, 1974–1979 and 1989–1993, and **Ramón J. Velásquez**, 1993–1994). The landscape of Táchira is formed by the Andean cordillera, showing mountains, valleys or depressions, Andean lacustrine, and Andean plains slope. The economic activities of the state are **agriculture**, cattle raising, mineral extraction, fertilizer production, and petrochemical industries. Táchira borders **Colombia**, having one of the most dynamic frontiers in South America, between San Antonio and Cúcuta.

TALAVERA Y GARCÉS, MARIANO DE (Coro, 1777–Caracas, 1861). Religious and **journalist**. From a young age, he showed exceptional oratory skills. In 1797, he obtained a master's degree in theology and in 1800 a doctorate in theology at the Royal and Pontifical **Universidad de Caracas**. In 1801, he was ordained as a priest. From **Mérida**, he joined the patriot cause in 1810, a movement helped financially by him through his family heritage. That year, as a member of the Patriotic Board, he signed the order to create the University of Mérida. Between 1812 and 1815, he remained imprisoned by the royalists. In 1822, in **Maracaibo**, he directed and wrote for the newspapers *El Correo Nacional* and *Concordia del Zulia*. In 1823, he was elected a deputy to the Congress of Bogotá. In 1827, the Congress named

him bishop of **Guayana**, and the following year Pope Leo XII appointed him bishop of Tricala and apostolic vicar of Guayana. In 1829, he was appointed an archbishop of Bogotá. In 1830, for refusing to swear allegiance to the **Constitution** of Venezuela, he spent two years without being able to enter the country. He returned to Guayana in 1832 to continue his apostolic work until 1842. From then, he lived in **Caracas**, giving remarkable speeches, writing in different publications, and reporting on national events. Between 1855 and 1857, he published the *Crónica Eclesiástica* (Ecclesiastical Chronical), in the pages of which he began to write the history of the **Catholic Church** in Venezuela.

TAMANACO (?–Caracas vicinity, 1572). Chief of the Mariches and Quiriquires Indians. After the death of the *cacique* **Guaicaipuro**, he served the union of the local tribes and led the resistance to the Spaniards in the nearby **Caracas** Valley. *See also* ORIGINAL PEOPLE.

TAMAYO, FRANCISCO (Sanare 1902–Caracas 1985). Botanist, conservationist, naturalist, and lexicographer. A member of **Generación del 28**, he began his studies in **medicine** at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, but his activism in the Federation of Students and its participation in the events of the Semana del Estudiante de 1928 forced him to go to **Mérida** until 1935. In 1936, he enrolled in the **Instituto Pedagógico de Caracas**, from which he graduated as a biological **sciences** professor in 1943. He continued with specialized studies in Buenos Aires. Between 1947 and 1978, he taught at the Pedagogical Institute and at the UCV. He conducted botanical explorations in different parts of Venezuela in order to study and classify the flora of the country. He discovered several plants that bear his name. He wrote extensively on botany (*Estudio del medio xerófilo venezolano*, 1949; *Conservación de recursos renovables en el estado Trujillo*, 1955; *Ensayo de clasificación de sabanas de Venezuela*, 1964; *Zonas de vida de los llanos centrales de Venezuela*, 1977). He also made contributions to folklore studies (*Datos sobre el folklore de la región de El Tocuyo*, 1945; *Introducción y bibliografía del folklore del estado Lara*, 1952) and the Venezuelan lexicon (*Léxico popular venezolano*, 1991).

TAMAYO, PÍO (El Tocuyo, 1898–Barquisimeto, 1935). Politician and poet, one of the first diffusers of Marxist ideas in Venezuela. In 1922, he went into exile for political reasons. Once abroad, he familiarized himself with Marxist doctrine and participated in the founding of several revolutionary organizations. Back in the country, his actions in 1928 during the student protests against **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s regime sent him to jail. There he

taught Marxism for the first time to members of **Generación del 28**, some of them future founders of the **Communist Party of Venezuela**.

TEJERA GUEVARA, ENRIQUE (Valencia, 1889–Caracas, 1980). Physician, researcher, **scientist**, and politician. He actively participated as a student leader at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)** and was involved in the events of 1912 against the regime of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, sending him into exile. In 1917, he graduated from the Medical University of the Sorbonne in Paris. During the First World War, he served as a volunteer in the Army Medical Corps in France. He returned to Venezuela in 1918 to graduate as a physician at the UCV. He worked as a doctor for the Caribbean Petroleum Company in the **oil** field of **Zulia State**, where he discovered Chagas disease (trypanosomiasis), leishmaniasis, and malaria in Venezuela. Between 1924 and 1931, he was director of the Laboratory of Microbiology of National **Health**. In 1926, he founded the chair in tropical pathology at the UCV, where he was also a professor of normal histology. In 1936, **Eleazar López Contreras** named him minister of health, **agriculture**, and livestock, in which position he proposed a plan to separate agriculture and livestock and organize the Ministry of Health and Welfare. He had the cooperation of the sanitarians Martín Vegas, **Arnoldo Gabaldón**, Leopoldo García Maldonado, **José Ignacio Baldó**, and Julio Diez, among others. Shortly after, he was assigned minister plenipotentiary in Belgium. In 1939, he was appointed minister of **education**. Between 1943 and 1945, during the government of **Isaías Medina Angarita**, he was minister plenipotentiary in Uruguay. In 1945, he was the president of **Carabobo State**. That year he brought to Venezuela for the first time dichloro-diphenyl-trichloroethane (DDT), an insecticide that was used in Morón to combat malaria, yellow fever, and typhus. He was president of the Venezuelan Medical Federation, the Natural Science Society, and the Venezuelan Red Cross. The central hospital of **Valencia** bears his name.

TEJERA PARÍS, ENRIQUE (Caracas 1919–Caracas 2015). Politician, lawyer, and diplomat, son of the scientist **Enrique Tejera Guevara**. In 1942, he graduated in **economics** and social **sciences** from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**. He served in government positions during the terms of **Isaías Medina Angarita** and **Rómulo Gallegos**. In 1958, he founded the National System of Coordination and Planning, then called Cordiplan, becoming its first director. In 1959, he was appointed governor of **Sucre State**. In 1962, he was president of the Banco Industrial de Venezuela. Between 1963 and 1968, he was ambassador to the **United States** and to the **Organization of American States**. He was a senator during 1969–1974. In 1989, he became minister of foreign affairs. Between 1995 and 2000, he was

ambassador to the **United Nations** and Spain. Closely linked to the UCV, he taught there from 1942 until his death.

TELENOVELAS (SOAP OPERAS). Very popular television genre in Latin America, which became an important industry in Venezuela during the 1980s and 1990s. Telenovelas such as *Cristal* (1985–1986) and *Kassandra* (1992–1993) had tremendous success in many countries, including Europe and Asia, and Venezuela started to be known all over the world for its soap operas. Leading actresses and actors, along with writers like Delia Fiallo and **José Ignacio Cabrujas**, gained international recognition. Between 1992 and 1994, *Por estas calles*, written by Ibsen Martínez, which dealt with the crisis the country was starting to experience, became a national political and social event. However, the deepening of the crisis at the beginning of the 21st century greatly affected the industry, which began to struggle to compete with the technical innovations of new producers, such as Colombia. The closure of **Radio Caracas Televisión** in 2007 also greatly affected the production of these TV serials. Nevertheless, Venezuelan studios and know-how continue to serve as the basis for soap operas for international networks.

TELEVISION. Television came to the country during **Marcos Pérez Jiménez's** dictatorship. The first national broadcast was registered in 1952 for YVKA-TV, channel 5, also known as Televisora Nacional (TVN). In 1953, private television channels began to operate. **William H. Phelps Tucker** founded **Radio Caracas Televisión** (channel 2, later known as RCTV), and Gonzalo Veloz Mancera started Televisa (channel 4). Venezuela became the fifth country of America and the ninth of the world where TV had arrived. In 1960, **Diego Cisneros** bought Televisa and renamed it Venevisión. In 1964, Cadena Venezolana de Televisión (channel 8) began transmission, but after financial problems in 1974 it was sold to the state, becoming the second channel in public hands. The industry grew up, and with it one of the most popular genres created as an export product: **telenovelas** (soap operas). Private national television boosted the careers of many artists, thanks to institutions like the Academia de Ciencias y Artes del Cine y la Televisión, promoted by RCTV. In 1979, color TV began in Venezuela. During the 1980s, the Venezuelan television industry became the most important in Latin America because of the success of its soap operas worldwide. At the end of the 20th century, television studios proliferated in both the capital and regional zones. In 1988, Televen (channel 10) was founded by Omar Camero Zamora, and in 1994 Globovisión by Luis Teófilo Núñez Arismendi, Guillermo Zuloaga Núñez, and Nelson Mezerhane. Other regions aired local stations, like Telecaribe on **Margarita Island** (1989) and Telecentro in **Barquisimeto** (1990).

In 1998, Televisora Nacional was transferred to the **archbishopric** of Caracas, renamed Valores Educativos Televisión (Vale TV). In 1997, pay television began operating in the country, one of the most important changes in the industry in recent years. In May 2007, the broadcast license of RCTV was not renewed and the station taken off air. Its critical editorial position against the **Hugo Chávez** regime was decisive to the action. TVes, a new station directed by the government, assumed the signal. At the same time, during Chávez's term other national television stations were created and controlled by the government, like Vive (2003), Telesur (2005), Avila TV (2006), and Televisora Colombeia (2012). Even a station for the Bolivarian National **Armed Forces** was created (2013). In 2013, TV started to be broadcast in digital.

TEPUY. Type of mountain characteristic of the Macizo Guayanés (Guianese Massif), with strong vertical walls and flat peaks. These giant rocks, the products of erosion at the oldest geological zone in the world, represent one of the most exceptional landscapes on the planet. From Auyantepuy flows the famous **Angel Falls**. Venezuela contains the largest concentration of *tepuyes*, with 50 rocks classified under that name. There are others in **Colombia** and **Brazil**.

THEATRE. *See* PERFORMING ARTS.

THIRD REPUBLIC. Name in the historiography for the reorganization of the Republic of Venezuela between 1816 and 1819, led by **Simón Bolívar**, first installed on **Margarita Island** and later in the **province of Guayana**. On 17 December 1819, the **Congress of Angostura** decreed the creation of the Republic of Colombia, known as **Gran Colombia**, ending the Third Republic.

TIERRA FIRME. Name given to the continental mainland as opposed to the **islands**. The term was used in the 15th and 16th centuries to refer to the coast from the Península de Paria (present-day **Sucre State**) to the Golfo de Darién (between **Colombia** and Panama). When in 1815 Spain sent under the command of **Pablo Morillo** an expedition to reconquer the newly independent territories of **Venezuela** and Nueva Granada, the crown called it the Ejército Expedicionario de Costa Firme (Expeditionary Army of the Mainland).

TIMOTO-CUICAS PEOPLE. Name conventionally assigned to the **indigenous** groups that inhabited the **Andean Region** before the arrival of the Spaniards. With Chibcha linguistic affiliation, they can be classified in two groups: the Timotes, located in **Mérida**, and the Cuicas, located in **Trujillo**.

They are considered the most developed native culture of the **pre-Hispanic period**. They practiced barter as **economic** activity and used **cocoa** seed as coins for payment. They were sedentary and knew both **agriculture** and pottery techniques. Some of the tribes that belonged to this ethnic group were the Timotos, the Mucuchíes, and the Chachopos. There are few remaining descendants of these tribes, and due to the transculturation process they have forgotten many of their ancestral customs.

TINOCO AGREEMENT. Signed in August 1934 by Minister Pedro Tinoco Smith (the father of **Pedro R. Tinoco**) and foreign **oil** companies, this agreement established **bolívar**–dollar parity. Although that year the dollar underwent a strong devaluation, **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s regime decided not to devalue the local currency. The agreement harmed nonoil exports and marked the decline of the **agriculture**-based **economy**.

TINOCO, PEDRO R. (Caracas, 1929–Denver, United States, 1993). Lawyer, banker, and politician. The son of Pedro Tinoco Smith, **Juan Vicente Gómez**’s interior minister, he was educated in Europe and in the **United States** and started working at the **law** firm Escritorio Tinoco y Travieso, founded by his father in 1914, representing most of the foreign **oil** companies in Venezuela. President of Banco Mercantil y Agrícola (with close ties to Chase Manhattan **Bank**) and later president of Banco Latino, he became minister of finance during **Rafael Caldera**’s first administration. He was then a deputy to the National Congress. As president of the National Banking Council and National Banking Association, he became the leader of private bankers. He was the executive director of **FEDECÁMARAS**. As the founder of the right-wing political party Movimiento Desarrollista Nacional, he ran for president in the 1973 elections. He was president of the Central Bank of Venezuela during **Carlos Andrés Pérez**’s second presidential period. *See also* ROCKEFELLER, NELSON.

TOBACCO. During the 16th century, it was the most important export product in the colonies. In the 17th century, the tobacco produced in **Barinas** became so esteemed in Europe that the word *Varinas* (as the city name was then spelled) began to be equivalent to *tobacco* in many countries. Smuggling was so great that eventually the Crown restricted cultivation, establishing the state monopoly Estando del Tabaco. This changed with the triumph of independence, which freed the **economy**. During the 19th century, production barely covered domestic demand, and often imports from **Cuba** were needed. However, by the end of the century, an important tobacco industry started to develop in the area of **Cumaná**. In 1922, the private Venezuelan-owned

Cigarrera Bigott was sold to British American Tobacco, which initiated a series of major changes in the industry. In 1938, blonde tobacco, which soon shifted to the black market, was introduced. Currently, there is an effort to produce high-quality tobacco for export.

TORO, FERMÍN (El Valle, 1806–Caracas, 1865). Politician, diplomat, writer, and professor. In 1810, he moved to **Caracas**, where he started his autodidactic education at the **Marqués del Toro**'s home. In 1828, he served in the Department of Finance, and in 1831 he joined the National Congress as a deputy. In 1842, on the repatriation of **Simón Bolívar**'s remains, he made a chronicle that recorded the event. In 1846, he was the diplomat responsible for the ratifying of Venezuela's independence with Spain, which was concluded by **Alejo Fortique**. Present at the National Congress on **January 24, 1848**, he resigned his post after the events of that day. To President **José Tadeo Monagas**, who was menacing him to return to his seat, he answered with one of the most famous phrases in Venezuelan history: "Tell General Monagas my corpse could be taken back, but Fermín Toro does not prostitute himself." Since then, he has been considered as an example of the struggle against tyranny. Toro retired from political activity during the **Monagases'** nepotism and returned after their overthrow as minister of finance and of foreign affairs. His intellectual work began in 1837, when he published his first articles in *El liberal*, regarding **literary** issues or political opinion. Two of his most important texts were *Europa y América* (1839), in which he warned the ruling class of the risks of imitating indiscriminately both the political and economic models of industrialized nations, and *Reflexiones sobre la Ley del 10 de abril de 1810*, in which he criticized the negative effects of that law on the national **economy**. In that sense, his thought has been judged representative of the Venezuelan **conservative** tradition. As a writer, he also has the distinction of printing in 1842 a serial novel called *Los mártires*, the first novel published in the country. He also wrote the short tales "La viuda de Corinto" (1837), "El solitario de las catacumbas" (1839), and "La Sibila de los Andes" (1840), of all them bearing a romantic stamp. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

TOROS COLEADOS. This is the Venezuelan rodeo. The first records of such activity go back to 1780 in the **llanos**, performed by plainsmen. During the 19th century, it was the main entertainment of the country, especially during **José Tadeo Monagas**'s regime. In 1943, the Asociación de Coleo in **Yaracuy State** was created. Its popularity increased to the point of being declared by the National Congress in 1981 the "**creole** and traditional sport."

TORREALABA, JOSÉ FRANCISCO (Santa María de Ipire, 1896–Caracas, 1973). Physician and researcher. In 1923, he graduated as a doctor of medical sciences from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. In 1924, he was named director of the asylum in **Caracas**, where he established a series of changes that made him one of the first practitioners of modern psychiatry in Venezuela. After a brief stay in Germany, he settled in Santa María de Ipire between 1929 and 1932, in Zaraza between 1932 and 1943, and in San Juan de los Morros between 1943 and 1973. His research focused on detecting, treating, and eradicating trypanosomiasis, or Chagas disease, in Venezuela. In 1934, he administered a screening method created by the French scientist Emile Brumpt, and in 1949 he published and distributed for free an anti-Chagas pamphlet summing up the general aspects of the disease, pointing out the places where it was suffered, and proposing measures to eradicate it. He also researched diseases such as hookworm, bilharzia, malaria, leishmaniasis, leprosy, and cancer. Between 1948 and 1973, he was the director of the Center for Research on Chagas Disease in San Juan de los Morros. He published extensive scientific work, including *Investigaciones sobre enfermedad de Chagas* (1943). *See also* HEALTH.

TORRES, GUMERSINDO (Coro, 1875–Caracas, 1947). Doctor, politician, and specialist in petroleum. As minister of development in **Juan Vicente Gómez's** government, he worked to control and set limits on the exploitation of oil by foreign companies. He created the Technical Office of Hydrocarbons to regulate the activities of oil companies, and through his advice, in 1920, the Congress published the first **Law** of Hydrocarbons. Companies openly opposed the reforms and issued complaints directly to Gómez, and Torres was dismissed and the law rewritten. He served in several other positions: administrator of La Guaira Customs Office, inspector of **Mara-caibo** Customs Office, and inspector of Consulates in the Foreign Affairs Ministry. In 1938, he was appointed first general comptroller of the republic by President **Eleazar López Contreras**.

TOVAR, MANUEL FELIPE (Caracas, 1803–Paris, France, 1866). Politician, president of Venezuela between 1859 and 1861, and promoter of the **Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País**. Although he began his political life in the **Conservative Party**, in 1840 he financially supported the founding of *El Venezolano* newspaper, which was the propaganda platform of the **Liberal Party**, led by **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán**. Between 1832 and 1845, he was a member of the National Congress. In 1858, he was appointed minister of the interior and justice in the first cabinet of **Julián Castro**, who as head of the **Revolución de Marzo** evicted **José Tadeo Monagas** from power. That

year he also was appointed president of the State Council, vice president, and provisional president of Venezuela when Castro left power. He was elected president for 1860–1864 in the first elections celebrated by universal suffrage for men in Venezuela. He resigned in May 1861, harassed by the start of the **Federal War** and the military conspiracy that promoted the dictatorship of **José Antonio Páez**. He died exiled in France.

TOVAR Y TOVAR, MARTÍN (Caracas, 1827–Caracas, 1902). Painter. In 1855, he returned to Venezuela after studying painting in Europe for five years. In 1867, he participated in the Paris Universal Exposition with his works *Le mulâtre ivroigne* and *Le llanero de Vénézuéla*, for which he won a **gold** medal. In 1873, he signed a contract with **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**'s government for 30 historical portraits for the Federal Palace. In 1883, he completed *La firma del Acta de Independencia*. Between 1885 and 1887, he painted the *Batalla de Carabobo*, a large ellipsoid canvas of approximately 490 square meters, specially made to fill the domed space of the Salón Elíptico of the Legislative Palace. He greatly influenced **Antonio Herrera Toro** and **Arturo Michelena**.

TRANSPORTATION. The Venezuelan transportation system is based mainly on roads. There is high use of personal vehicles, primarily due to the low cost of gasoline. In 2007, over 500,000 cars were sold, constituting a record mainly due to the boom in **oil** income. The most elevated rate of traffic density has been registered in the central-north area, in the states of **Miranda**, **Aragua**, **Carabobo**, and **Vargas** and in **Caracas** city.

During the **pre-Hispanic period**, there were only trails along which **aboriginal** tribes moved. With the arrival of Europeans, the transport of products on pack animals started, and where possible with carriages, which led to the construction or opening of primitive roads. By the end of the 18th century, the Spanish Crown did not intend to build roads, claiming concerns over security and defense. The start of the **War of Independence** destroyed some of the few roads existing in the country, isolating it internally and externally. In 1831, studies on roads started. The building of roads connecting Caracas, La Guaira, and neighboring areas started in 1837. The administration of President **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** developed a project of roads in the center of the country extending to the east and west. In the 20th century, during the government of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, the Trans-Andean Road and other routes of **economic** relevance were built as part of his policy to connect the country in order to ensure rapid troop movements and quell any revolt. The arrival of oil companies led as well to the building of roads to connect their offices with the oil fields. In the 1950s, road construction increased

substantially and reached 3,321 kilometers of paved roads. Highways and distribution systems started to be erected, including the highway system of Caracas, the Caracas–La Guaira Highway, and the **Maracaibo Bridge**. By 1978, Venezuela had 61,059 kilometers of roads. At present, there are five important highway systems in Venezuela: (1) The Autopista Regional del Centro connects the **Distrito Capital** and Miranda State (Caracas city) with Aragua and Carabobo States, serving the cities of Maracay and **Valencia** and vicinity). Conceived during the 1950s and the 1960s, it is the most traveled freeway in Venezuela. (2) The Caracas–La Guaira Highway, inaugurated in 1953 during **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**'s dictatorship, connects the nation's capital with the most important international airport (Aeropuerto Internacional **Simón Bolívar**) and to the second most important commercial seaport, the La Guaira Port. (3) The Valencia–Puerto Cabello Highway connects the city of Valencia with Venezuela's principal port, Puerto Cabello. (4) The Autopista **José Antonio Páez**, also known as the Los **Llanos** Highway, located on the west side of the country, links **Barinas**, Carabobo, **Cojedes**, and **Portuguesa** States. Although this highway is not completely finished, sections are available for use. (5) The Autopista Centro Occidental connects **Lara**, **Yaracuy**, and Carabobo States.

By the mid-20th century, some inner-city transportation systems were planned in order to help citizens move more comfortably. The first, installed in 1983, was the Metro of Caracas. It combines subways, busses, and cableways, including interurban roots. Others have been installed in the cities of Valencia, **Maracaibo**, **Barquisimeto**, and **Mérida**.

In 1824, the first railroad projects were proposed. But the first railroad lines only materialized after 1872 during the government of Guzmán Blanco, being one of the cornerstones of his modernization project. In 1877, a British company at Aroa Mines built the first stage of the Aroa–Tucacas line on the northwestern coast of Venezuela. Inaugurated in 1883 as part of the celebrations for Simón Bolívar's birth centennial, the Caracas–La Guaira line, built by a British consortium, had major delays due to political and financial difficulties. In 1894, the Gran Ferrocarril de Venezuela, also known as Ferrocarril Alemán, was inaugurated after being built and financed with German capital. The route connected Caracas and Valencia, making it the longest in the country. Another important railroad line was that of La Ceiba, connecting the **Andean Region** with **Maracaibo Lake**. From 1910, no more railroad contracts were approved by the government, and in 1943 the lines were nationalized. By the 1940s, railroad service had declined. In 1946, the Instituto Autónomo Administración Ferrocarriles del Estado was created to revamp the railroad system, with no success. In 1999, the National Railroad Plan was launched to build 13,600 kilometers of railroads in 20 years and connect the

whole country. Presently, only the Valles del Tuy–Caracas line is operative, despite major investment.

Once the **Air Force** was created in 1920, it was necessary to build airports. The first one was built in Maracay (Aragua State) for the Military Aviation School. Nevertheless, most flights were made in hydroplanes that could land on the sea or in Maracaibo Lake. In civil aviation, in 1929 the *Compagnie Generales Aeropostale Frances*, which operated in the Antilles, chose Venezuela as an ideal point for refueling stops in South America. The company started flying to Venezuela, using the runway at Maracay, which was widened and started to be called Los Tacariguas Airport. Nevertheless, the city of Maracay, where Juan Vicente Gómez resided during his regime, ceased to be a critical point for civil aeronautics when he passed away. Even though military aviation remained there, along with the other major military air bases in Venezuela, the most important civil and commercial airport was located in Maiquetía (Vargas State), a coastal town close to Caracas and next to the port of La Guaira. Maiquetía Airport had its origins in the 1920s, when the U.S. Pan-American Airways started to use the location to land their cargo airplanes. In 1942, during the Second World War, the Venezuelan state allowed that airline to transform the aerodrome into an airport as part of their support in the Caribbean. In 1945, the first control tower at Maiquetía International Airport was inaugurated, making it the first facility in Venezuela with equipment for the handling of major air traffic. In 1946, its ownership was transferred by Pan-American to the Venezuelan state. The airport experienced several upgrades until in 1978 a new airport was opened next to the old one. In 1929, amid the oil boom, Grano de Oro Airport was opened in Maracaibo. In 1969, it was replaced by La Chinita International Airport in **Zulia State**. From the 1950s, Venezuela started to be connected by a large network of airports. Currently, the country has 14 international and 35 domestic airports.

Sea transportation is essentially dedicated to commercial activities. There are 54 ports, 14 of them for public use. The principal ports are Puerto Cabello (Carabobo State), La Guaira (Vargas State), Maracaibo (Zulia State), Guanta (**Anzoátegui State**), Puerto Sucre (in **Cumaná, Sucre State**), and Guaranao (**Falcón State**), all leading to the Caribbean Sea. Puerto Ordaz, part of **Ciudad Guayana**, exports steel and other materials through the **Orinoco River**. *See also* AGUERREVERE, JUAN JOSÉ; MUÑOZ TÉBAR, JESÚS.

TREATY OF COCHE. Treaty establishing the formal conclusion of the **Federal War**. It was signed at the Coche hacienda, close to **Caracas**, on 23 April 1863 by **Pedro José Rojas**, secretary-general of the supreme commander-in-chief of the republic, **José Antonio Páez**, and **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**, secretary-general of the temporary president of the federation, **Juan**

Crisóstomo Falcón. The precarious political and **economic** situation Venezuela was suffering since 1862 was the main reason Páez's government established conversations with the leaders of the federation. The treaty established the end to hostilities, banning new recruitment, and created public order brigades designed to prevent the outbreak of violence.

TRIENIO (1945–1948). Name given to the government of **Acción Democrática** that emerged from the coup of **October 18, 1945**, that overthrew **Isaías Medina Angarita** and ended the **Andean Hegemony**. It lasted until the period of the **Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno**, with **Rómulo Betancourt** as president and through the brief presidency of **Rómulo Gallegos**. The three years between 1945 and 1948 were called the Democratic Revolution, the most important measure of which was the enactment of the Electoral Statute of 1946, which granted the right to vote to all Venezuelans, including **women** (formerly, voting had been restricted to men) and those who could not read.

TRINIDAD (PROVINCE). Political and territorial unity in existence between 1525 and 1797 and part of the **General Captaincy of Venezuela** from 1777. Consisting of the **island** of Trinidad, it never had a large **population**. For this reason, during the 18th century, the Crown allowed the establishment of French immigrants, which is why the first Venezuelan **newspaper** was in French: *Courier de la Trinité Espagnole* (1789). The English conquered the island during the war between Great Britain and France, allied with Spain. After the Peace of Amiens (1802), it became English land.

TRUJILLO (PROVINCE). A political-territorial unit existing between 1810 and 1863. Due to the events of **April 19, 1810**, the junta of the city of Trujillo decided to separate from the **province of Maracaibo**. It was the site of major battles during the **War of Independence**, and on 15 June 1813, **Simón Bolívar** proclaimed the **War to Death** in its capital. It became part of the **Zulia Department** during the **Gran Colombia** period and reappeared as a province in 1830. In 1863, with the arrival of the federal system, it became a state.

TRUJILLO (STATE). One of the Venezuelan states, located in the **Andean Region**, with its capital at the city of Trujillo. It has an area of 7,400 square kilometers (0.8 percent of the country) and a **population** of 686,367 (2011 census, 2.37 percent of the country) located in 20 municipalities and 93 parishes. In 1863, the **province of Trujillo** became a state under the new federal regime. Trujillo's landscape is divided into three types: the Andean System

(Andean cordillera), the Coro System, and the lowlands, part of **Maracaibo Lake**. **Economic** activities in the state include **agriculture**, cattle raising (due to diversity in soil fertility), fishing on a low scale, extraction of nonmetallic minerals, hydrocarbon and **oil** extraction, and tourism.

TRUJILLO AGREEMENTS. The Armistice Treaty and Regularization of War were two agreements signed between the Republic of Colombia (**Gran Colombia**) and the Kingdom of Spain on 25 and 26 November 1820, in **Trujillo**, Venezuela. General Captain **Pablo Morillo** received instructions in June 1820 to arrange a cease-fire with **Simón Bolívar**. Morillo notified Bolívar of the Spanish Army's unilateral cease-fire and invited him to negotiate an agreement. The representatives of both sides had a meeting in Trujillo on 25 November, and on the same day they signed the armistice, which suspended all land and sea military operations in Venezuela. Both sides undertook to make war "as civilized people do" and agreed to respect noncombatants, to exchange prisoners, and to finally end the practice of **Guerra a Muerte** (War to Death). The agreements represent an important antecedent in international humanitarian **law**.

TRUJILLO DURÁN, MANUEL (Maracaibo, 1871–Maracaibo, 1933). **Journalist** and entrepreneur. He was a collaborator on *El Cojo Ilustrado* and *El Zulia Ilustrado*. It is said that he bought from Thomas Alva Edison a vitascope, a predecessor of the kinetoscope. With it, he showed on 28 January 1897, at the Baralt **Theater** of **Maracaibo** two films, *Muchacho bañándose en la laguna de Maracaibo* and *Especialista sacando muelas en el gran hotel Europa*, which are considered the first movies filmed in Venezuela.

U

UNIÓN REPUBLICANA DEMOCRÁTICA (URD). Political party created in 1945 by Isaac J. Pardo, Elías Toro, Andrés Germán Otero, and later **Jóvito Villalba**, who became its most important leader. The organization was formed almost exclusively of intellectuals. Its original purpose was to serve as a voting platform for independent citizens and democrats who were unhappy with the system after the coup of **October 18, 1945**. Their political programs were subordinate to the political values of the **liberalism** of 19th-century Venezuela. When the **military dictatorship** (1948–1958) started, **Acción Democrática (AD)** and the **Communist Party of Venezuela** became illegal. When the dictatorship convened a constituent assembly in November 1952, these associations ordered their supporters to vote for URD, and Villalba, competing for a seat for **Caracas**, received the most votes. However, an electoral fraud was executed, and **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** assumed the presidency. URD was outlawed. After **January 23, 1958**, and the establishment of the new democratic political system, URD enjoyed popular support. Despite losing the 1958 elections, URD consolidated as the second largest political party in the country after AD. Along with **COPEI**, those two parties signed the **Pacto de Puntofijo**. However, social sympathy for URD gradually decreased and plunged it into internal strife, dissension, and scandals that made it lose electoral strength by the late 1960s. In 1988, it was the political platform used by Ismenia Villalba to run for the presidency, becoming the first **woman** so nominated.

UNITED NATIONS, RELATIONS WITH. Venezuela is a founding member of the United Nations (1945) and has been a member of the Security Council five times, for the periods 1962–1963, 1977–1978, 1986–1987, 1992–1993, and 2015–2016. During 1992–1993, the “Arria Formula” was first implemented as an informal consultation process that allows members of the Security Council to meet with persons in a confidential, informal setting. These meetings are presided over by a member of the council as facilitator of the discussion. The process was named after Diego Arria, ambassador from Venezuela, who initiated the practice in 1992. It has been used frequently

and has assumed growing importance since first being implemented. *See also* FOREIGN POLICY; GUYANA, RELATIONS WITH.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, RELATIONS WITH. Relations between the countries have been traditionally close, characterized by important trade and investment, especially in the **oil** sector. However, there has been tension recently since the election of President **Hugo Chávez** and the arrival of the **Bolivarian Revolution**. At the end of the 19th century, Venezuela appealed to the United States, based on the Monroe Doctrine, to interrupt the expansionist policy of Great Britain over the **Essequibo Territory**. Although the results of the **Paris Arbitral Award** (1899) were contrary to Venezuelan interests, the United States had an active role in trying to resolve the issue. During the **Venezuelan Crisis of 1902**, President Theodore Roosevelt objected to possible penetration of the region by European empires, especially Germany, considering it a clear challenge to the Monroe Doctrine. Roosevelt threatened military action against European powers, forcing the lifting of the naval blockade, and later negotiated the payment of **external debt** in accordance with the Protocols of Washington. This incident was a major motivation to implementing the Roosevelt Corollary, which laid the ground for the subsequent American policies of the “big stick” and dollar diplomacy. From the mid-1920s, the growth of the oil industry led to the strengthening of **economic** ties between the countries. In 1939, the Trade Reciprocity Treaty was signed, allowing Venezuela to export oil and mineral resources in exchange for preferential treatment of imports of various manufactured products. During the late 1950s, the United States decided to reduce its purchase of Venezuelan oil, and the treaty was revoked in 1972, based on new oil realities and on the need to expand the Venezuelan industry, hampered in large measure by the import incentives granted by the agreement. However, both countries continued to sustain special relations in the sector, even after **oil nationalization** in 1976. During the cold war, relations were fraternal. In the 1950s, the **military dictatorship** fit into the pattern imposed by the policy of President Dwight D. Eisenhower of combating communism. Entering the 1960s, representative democracy and the oil **business** were important advantages for President John F. Kennedy in promoting the Alliance for Progress in Latin America. Despite the failure of the program, relations remained strong until the end of the 20th century. Throughout the period, four U.S. presidents visited Venezuela: Kennedy in 1963, Jimmy Carter in 1978, George H. W. Bush in 1990, and Bill Clinton in 1997. Cooperation in combating the production and transit of illicit drugs was a topic on their agendas. The arrival of Chávez to power ended almost a century of good relations. With anti-U.S. rhetoric, the Venezuelan government started to support enemies of the United States,

embracing an intense relationship with **Cuba** and with Iraq, virtually an international pariah under **United Nations** sanctions. In 2005, Venezuela ordered the expulsion of U.S. military attachés under accusations of conspiracy and espionage. The same action occurred later with the agents of the DEA. In 2008, the ambassador to Venezuela, Patrick Duddy, was expelled and the Venezuelan ambassador in Washington recalled to Caracas. Later, approval of a new ambassador, Larry Palmer, was denied. In retaliation, Washington revoked the visa of the Venezuelan ambassador. Under **Nicolás Maduro**'s presidency, relations reached critical moments. Maduro announced the expulsion of Kelly Keiderling, chargé d'affaires in Caracas, and two other diplomats. In December 2014, President Barack Obama signed a law imposing sanctions on Venezuelan government officials implicated in human rights violations. In response, Caracas established a visa requisite for U.S. citizens and announced a reduction of 80 percent in the personnel of the U.S. embassy in Caracas. In February 2017, Venezuelan Vice President Tareck El Aissami was included on the Clinton list, which named individuals and companies linked to the traffic of drugs. *See also* FOREIGN POLICY.

UNITED STATES OF VENEZUELA. Name of the nation established in the Constitution of 1864. Venezuela was then divided into 20 independent states as a result of the end of the **Federal War**. It was retained until the Constitution of 1953, when the name changed back to the República de Venezuela. The Constitution of 1999 renamed as the country the **Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela**. *See also* CONSTITUTIONS.

UNIVERSIDAD CENTRAL DE VENEZUELA (UCV). It is the oldest and most important university in Venezuela, founded in 1721 in **Caracas**. Its roots, however, lie in the Seminary of Santa Rosa de Lima, established in 1696. It was a center of formation of priests but was not able to confer degrees. After numerous requests from Venezuelans, King Philip V allowed it to do so and elevated it to the category of university. In 1722, Pope Innocent XIII made it a "pontifical" university, and it was called the Royal and Pontifical University of Caracas. It had four faculties: **Law**, Theology, Canon Law, and **Medicine**. It was a typical institution of colonial society: only white people could study there, theology was the center of studies, the **Catholic Church** supervised it, and the rector was usually a priest. However, by the end of the 18th century, this started to change. In 1788, Father **Baltazar de los Reyes Marrero** held the chair in philosophy and **arts** (a program that included physics, chemistry, and mathematics) and began to lecture in modern philosophy. In 1797, the king granted *pardos* the right to study medicine. The fight for colored people to go to the university was

one of the most representative social and racial conflicts of the end of the colonial era. The republican university was born in 1827, when Caracas was already incorporated into **Gran Colombia**. Nevertheless, in that year the city rebelled against the union of republics, and **Simón Bolívar** visited in order to control the situation. Among the measures he enacted was the reform of the university under the guidelines of **José María Vargas**, a physician, scientist, and professor who had studied in Scotland. Now the university became one of the three Central Universities of Gran Colombia (the other was the Central University of Ecuador and the Central University of Cundinamarca). In spite of this, Venezuela separated in 1830 and Gran Colombia disappeared one year later, but the name stuck, commonly known by its acronyms in Spanish, UCV, or simply as “La Central.” The republican university abolished racial exclusions and promoted the study of natural **sciences**. In fact, the new rector was Vargas. Although several reforms were made during the rest of the 19th century, all of them kept the spirit of “Vargas’s reform” of 1827. Secularization and replacement of theology by the sciences took place in the following years, and the seminary, which had remained united to the university, was separated in 1856. During the era of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco**’s autocracy (1870–1888), the university was reformed under the principles of positivism. On one hand, Guzmán Blanco reduced the autonomy of the university and appointed himself rector; on the other hand, he improved studies of the sciences and renovated and modernized the facilities. Administratively, the reform of 1874 followed the model of the Napoleonic university. In 1874, the School of **Engineering** was formed after the closure of the autonomous **Mathematics Academy of Caracas**. An important generation of intellectuals and politicians was formed in this period. In 1894, the School of Pharmacy was established. In 1912, the minister of public instruction, Felipe Guevara Rojas, started other important reforms in the context of modernization of the public administration, prompted by **Juan Vicente Gómez**. Thus, for 10 years (1912–1922), the university was practically closed and replaced by five autonomous schools. Although Guevara Rojas wanted to follow the model of British universities, the protests of the students against the Gómez dictatorship also played a role. The School of Dentistry was begun under this model in 1916. Reopened in 1922, six years later, in 1928, the students of UCV led an important civil rebellion against Gómez. Known as **Generación del 28**, many of these students became public figures. Three presidents (**Rómulo Betancourt**, **Raúl Leoni**, and **Germán Suárez Flamerich**) took part, as did numerous writers, scientists, politicians, and other intellectuals, including **Miguel Otero Silva**, **Jóvito Villalba**, **Francisco Tamayo**, and **Miguel Acosta Saignes**. After Gómez passed away in 1935, the UCV played a critical role in the democratization and modernization of Venezuela. New

schools and faculties were established: Agronomy (1937), Economics (1938), Veterinary Medicine (1938), Philosophy and **Literature** (1946), and Natural Sciences (1958). Several centers of research were also established, such as the Institute of Tropical Medicine (1947), Institute of Anthropology (1947), and Institute of Psychology (1950). In 1942, student enrollment had grown beyond the physical capacity of UCV and some schools had to move to several buildings in Caracas. A hacienda close to the city was bought to build a new university campus, the Ciudad Universitaria. **Carlos Raúl Villanueva** was in charge of the principal design. Villanueva worked with 28 avant-garde artists who made the Aula Magna, Plaza Cubierta, Central Library, and very important pieces of **art**, like *Floating Clouds* by Alexander Calder; murals by Victor Vasarely, Wilfredo Lam, and Fernand Léger; and the clock by Juan Otaola Paván. The UCV was moved in 1953. Due to this “synthesis of the arts,” in 1994 the campus was declared a World Heritage Site. As of 2016, UCV has 65,000 students distributed across 10 faculties and 45 schools. According to international rankings, UCV placed 18th among Latin American universities and first among Venezuelan universities.

UNIVERSIDAD DE CARACAS. *See* UNIVERSIDAD CENTRAL DE VENEZUELA.

UNIVERSITIES. *See* EDUCATION; INSTITUTO PEDAGÓGICO NACIONAL; MATHEMATICS ACADEMY OF CARACAS; UNIVERSIDAD CENTRAL DE VENEZUELA.

UNZAGA Y AMÉZAGA, LUIS DE (Malaga, Spain, 1721–Malaga, Spain, 1792). Military officer and administrator, governor of the provinces of Louisiana, Venezuela, and **Cuba**. In 1777, King Charles III ordered the integration of the provinces of **Cumaná**, **Maracaibo**, **Guayana**, **Trinidad**, and **Margarita** into the newly created **General Captaincy of Venezuela**. The command of this captaincy was assigned to Unzaga, who remained in the position until 1783.

UPRISING OF CHIRINOS (1795). Rebellion of slaves and **aborigines** in the Serranía of **Coro**, led by José Leonardo Chirinos. It occurred in the context of uprisings on several Caribbean **islands** (particularly the one led by Tula on the neighboring island of Curaçao), inspired by the Haitian rebellion. Chirinos was a free *zambo*, the son of a free indigenous **woman** and a black slave. Working for a merchant, he had traveled to Haiti. Although it was not a movement with a clear program, it proposed a regime led by colored people, inspired by the Haitian regime, and the abolition of **slavery**. After looting a

city, the movement was defeated as it attempted to advance toward the city of Coro. Captured, Chirinos was executed and quartered. Due to his position in the caste system of the time, he is known as the *zambo* Chirino. Today, he is considered a hero of the struggles of the **Afro-Venezuelan population**.

URBINA, RAFAEL SIMÓN (Puerto Cumarebo, 1897–Caracas, 1950). Military leader and politician. He participated in many armed insurrections against **Juan Vicente Gómez**, which ended in failures, jail, and proscription. In 1929, along with other exiles (among them **Gustavo Machado**), he captured the main fortress of Curaçao, taking the Dutch governor as a hostage, and grabbed weapons to invade Venezuela. In 1950, he led the kidnapping and assassination of military junta president **Carlos Delgado Chalbaud**. The same day, Urbina was captured and killed while being moved between prisons. *See also* PÉREZ JIMÉNEZ, MARCOS.

URDANETA, RAFAEL (Maracaibo, 1788–Paris, France, 1845). Military officer, politician, and independence leader. He was the last president of **Gran Colombia** (1830–1831). He was one of the most loyal of **Simón Bolívar**'s collaborators. He first studied in his native area and in 1804 traveled to Bogotá, where he studied at the College of San Bartolomé. In 1810, he joined the revolutionary movement that broke out in Bogotá and joined the ranks of the Volunteer Battalion of the National Guard created by the Supreme Council of Santa Fé. Later, he joined Bolívar and soon became a close collaborator, participating in several actions during the **Campaña Admirable**. During the **War of Independence**, he participated in actions like the siege of Santa Fé de Bogotá in 1814, the taking of **Maracaibo** in 1821, and the march toward San Carlos, preceding the **Carabobo Battle**, in which he did not participate due to his exhausted troops, as ordered by Bolívar. In 1828, as secretary of war, he judged the people responsible for the so-called Septembrina Conspiracy, who attacked Bolívar, then president of Gran Colombia. Convinced of the guilt of **Francisco de Paula Santander**, he sentenced him to death in a summary trial. In 1830, in the Admirable Congress, he tried to save the unity of Gran Colombia by overthrowing President Joaquín Mosquera. He resigned the command after Bolívar died. An opponent of **José Antonio Páez**, he was exiled to the province of Coro in 1832. His last political action was in 1845, as plenipotentiary minister to negotiate the ratification of the Treaty of Reconnaissance, Peace, and Friendship with Spain in Madrid. During the trip, he became ill. Although doctors recommended a surgical intervention, Urdaneta postponed until he finished his mission. On his arrival to Paris, he became worse, and after several days in bed he died.

URRUTIA PROTOCOL (1858). Agreement signed in **Caracas** between the minister of foreign affairs of Venezuela, Wenceslao Urrutia, and the diplomatic representatives of the **United States**, England, France, **Brazil**, the Netherlands, and Spain. Following the victory of the **Revolución de Marzo**, the ousted president **José Tadeo Monagas** took refuge in the French legation, around which large popular protests were held. People demanded a trial for the former president, but the ambassador demanded respect for the right of asylum and security for the legation. The English ambassador joined this request. Facing the possibility of the conflict becoming worse, Chancellor Urrutia reached an agreement to protect the legation and let Monagas leave the country. The new government was chaired by **Julián Castro** but supported by the **Liberal** and **Conservative Parties**. As Conservatives did not wish to allow Monagas to leave the country, and since Urrutia was a Liberal, they accused the protocol of being dishonest. When Castro broke with Liberals and started to govern with the Conservatives, the lack of authorization for Monagas's flight triggered a crisis. France's response was to blockade the coasts with its fleet, and Britain joined. In the end, Monagas left Venezuela, but Liberals in exile prepared a revolution, which became the **Federal War**.

USLAR PIETRI, ARTURO (Caracas, 1906–Caracas, 2001). Writer, politician, **journalist**, and **television** personality. In 1928, he was part of the group of young writers who edited the magazine *Válvula*, which started the avant-garde movement in Venezuela. Uslar Pietri wrote the manifesto of the movement, *Somos*, and published in the same year his first book, *Barrabás y otros relatos*. In contrast to his classmates at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)**, he did not participate in the student movement **Generación del 28** against **Juan Vicente Gómez's** regimen because his family had close ties with the dictatorship. In 1929, he was appointed attaché in the Venezuelan embassy in Paris, after he graduated as a doctor of political **science**. In France, Uslar Pietri became friends with Miguel Ángel Asturias and Alejo Carpentier. They introduced him to the surrealist movement, and as a product of the contrast between this movement and their Latin American experiences, they gave shape to what became known as *realismo mágico* (magical realism), a literary category created by Uslar Pietri in 1947. In 1931, in Paris, he published *Las lanzas coloradas*, his first novel, set during the **War of Independence**, which rapidly became a success in Spanish-speaking countries. In 1935, when Gómez passed away, he returned to Venezuela and started his political life. In July 1936, he published a famous editorial of the daily *Ahora* titled “Sembrar el petróleo” (Sow the Oil), in which he argued for using **oil** revenues to promote **agriculture**. Since then, all Venezuelan presidents have used the phrase as a motto for their **economic** policies.

Increasingly committed to economic and politic issues in Venezuela, in 1938 he founded the School of Economics at the UCV and in 1945 published *Sumario de la economía venezolana para alivio de los estudiantes*. In 1939, he was appointed minister of **education** by President **Eleazar López Contreras**. In 1941, with the advent of **Isaías Medina Angarita** to power, Uslar Pietri became a national leader of the *medinismo* and held important positions in the government, as minister of the Secretariat of the Presidency and minister of the interior. In 1943, he took part in the foundation of the **Partido Democrático Venezolano**. Due to the events of **October 18, 1945**, his political career was interrupted. He went into exile in the **United States** and taught **literature** and journalism at Columbia University. As a product of his classes, he published *Breve historia de la novela hispanoamericana* (1955). Between 1948 and 1998, he published in many newspapers of Latin America his weekly column *Pizarrón*. In 1950, he returned to Venezuela, focusing on teaching (he founded the chair in Venezuelan literature at the UCV), writing essays, and working in the advertising industry. In 1953, he hosted the TV program *Valores Humanos*, a half-hour exposition on varied themes from history, **art**, and literature. Airing for more than 30 years, the successful program converted Uslar Pietri into a media personality. During those years, he was elected a member of the **National Academies** of Political Science (1955), **Language** (1958) and **History** (1960). In 1958, he resumed his political life and took part in the movement that overthrew **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** on **January 23**, being imprisoned for some days. Then he collaborated with the new democratic regime. During the 1960s, he was a senator, presidential candidate (coming in third in the elections of 1963), and leader of the center-right party Frente Nacional Democrático. In 1969, he retired from active politics for 20 years. He took over the direction of the *El Nacional*, the most important newspaper in Venezuela. In 1974, he was appointed ambassador to UNESCO. Simultaneously, he published several books, including the novels *Oficio de difuntos* (1976) and *La Isla de Robinson* (1981). In 1986, when he turned 80 years old, the Congress enacted a national celebration. Nevertheless, in his eighties, he returned to politics. In the early 1990s, he led the group Los Notables, who sought to harness the discontent created by the unpopular **Carlos Andrés Pérez** government, contributing to the collapse of the **Pacto de Puntofijo** system. Among other awards, he received the Prince of Asturias Prize in 1990 and the **International Novel Prize Rómulo Gallegos** in 1991 for his novel *La visita en el tiempo*. Uslar Pietri published more than 60 books, among them novels (seven), short story collections, essay collections, travel books, and poetry.

V

VALENCIA. The capital city of **Carabobo State**, it is located in the northern part of the country, with an area of 1,578 square kilometers. With more than two million inhabitants, it is the third most populous city in Venezuela. Captain **Alonso Díaz Moreno** founded it in 1555 on the shores of Lake Tacarigua, thereafter known as **Valencia Lake**. The city saw significant growth during the 18th century due to its proximity to Puerto Cabello, one of the main centers of operations of the **Compañía Guipuzcoana**. Since the independence process, it has three times been the capital of the republic: in 1812, when the Congress was established there; in 1830, immediately after separation from **Gran Colombia**, when the so-called **Valencia Congress** organized the new republic; and in 1858, when the city hosted a constituent congress, known as the **Valencia Convention**. It was the location of major battles during the **War of Independence**, such as the Rebellion of Valencia in 1811, when the city rose up against the separatist government of **Caracas**, and its siege and subsequent looting in 1814 by the troops of **Jose Tomás Boves**. In 1826, the city was the core of **La Cusiata**, the secessionist rebellion against Gran Colombia. The field where in 1821 the **Carabobo Battle** was fought, sealing the independence of Venezuela, is near the city. In 1921, the Campo de Carabobo Memorial was built on the site, becoming one of the symbols of the city. Since the 1930s, due to changes in the **oil** economy, the city started to grow in urbanization, industrialization, and **population**. During the 1960s, Valencia became one of the most important industrial areas of Venezuela. It has numerous important buildings, including the Plaza de Toros Monumental, the world's second-largest bullfighting ring. The **Baseball Hall of Fame and Museum** is also located in Valencia, which also hosts one of the sport's most important teams, the Magallanes B.B.C.

VALENCIA CONGRESS (1830). Constituent assembly held between 6 May and 14 October 1830, in the city of **Valencia** in order to organize legally and politically the state of Venezuela, as a consequence of the separation of the departments of **Zulia**, Venezuela, and Orinoco from **Gran Colombia**. Its convocation on 13 January 1830, by **José Antonio Páez** marked the separation of Venezuela from the Colombian union.

VALENCIA CONVENTION (1858). Constituent assembly inaugurated on 5 July 1858, with the aim of reorganizing the state after the overthrow of **José Tadeo Monagas** by the **Revolución de Marzo**, organized by Liberals and Conservatives. The president was **Fermín Toro**. The convention drafted and proclaimed the **Constitution** of 1858, which among other things granted the universal vote to men. Nevertheless, the constitution did not establish all the reforms the Liberals proposed. The divisions within both parties, the scandal over the **Urrutia Protocol**, and the pugnacity between the federalists and *centralistas* led to the **Federal War**. In 1861, **José Antonio Páez** established the dictatorship and repealed all the powers and the constitution, which was replaced by an organic decree that guaranteed some rights to citizens but granted absolute powers to Páez.

VALENCIA LAKE. It is a hydrographical basin in **Carabobo** and **Aragua States**, with an area of 7,800 square kilometers. The lake receives water from 22 small rivers and ravines, the Aragua River being the most important. The lake contains the islands El Burro, Burrito, Otama, El Horno, El Zorro, Caiguire, and Chambergo. Named Tacarigua Lake by the **aborigines**, the lake was first mentioned in 1531 by **Juan de Castellanos**. In 1723, **José de Oviedo y Baños** first estimated its dimensions. **Alexander von Humboldt** in 1800 and **Agustín Codazzi** in 1841 estimated its longitude. Since the 16th century, the lake has suffered from water desiccation, increased in the 1940s due to the creation of the Zuata and Taguaguay dams. As industries and **population** grew around the lake, they generated further desiccation and contamination of the water. In 1978, the course of Cabriales River was modified to reduce water contamination in the lake, generating a rise in the water level.

VALLENILLA LANZ, LAUREANO (Barcelona, 1870–París, France, 1936). Sociologist, historian, **journalist**, and diplomat. He is considered one of the most prominent representatives of Venezuelan positivist thinking. Between 1904 and 1910, he held diplomatic positions in Europe, which allowed him to deepen his humanistic knowledge, participating as a listener and student at the Sorbonne and in the Collège de France. Back in Venezuela, he began a close relationship with the regime of **Juan Vicente Gómez**, providing one of its ideological supports. Between 1913 and 1915, he was director of the National Archives. In 1916, he was elected to the Senate, being its president in 1920, 1923, 1930, and 1931. Between 1915 and 1931, he was director of *El Nuevo Diario*, a **newspaper** sympathetic to the policies of the government. From 1931 until his death, he was plenipotentiary minister of Venezuela in Paris. In 1919, he edited the work *Cesarismo democrático*, which examined the Venezuelan past using theoretical and methodological

positivist assumptions. The study concludes that as a result of natural evolution, in Venezuelan society the **caudillo** as “necessary gendarme” was justified. The text, translated into several languages, is one of the most important Latin American positivism documents. Other published works include *Críticas de sinceridad y exactitud* (1921), *Campañas políticas de El Nuevo Diario* (two volumes, 1926 and 1928), and *Disgregación e integración* (1930). He was elected a member of the **National Academy of History** in 1918.

VALLENILLA PLANCHART, LAUREANO (Caracas, 1912–Saint Moritz, Switzerland, 1973). A close associate of the **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** government, he is considered the creator of the Nuevo Ideal Nacional, the ideological support of the regime, inspired by the positivist approaches of his father, **Laureano Vallenilla Lanz**. Minister of internal affairs between 1952 and 1958, he was the promoter of the plebiscite of 15 December 1957, through which the government tried to extend for five years Pérez Jiménez’s management without calling elections, scheduled for 1958, according to the **constitution**. As the **Seguridad Nacional**, the political agency of repression, supported his activities as minister, his name is linked to the persecution, torture, and deaths of political activists during that period. He went into exile in 1958 and after a brief return to Venezuela in 1970, which included a few months in prison, died abroad.

VARGAS (STATE). It is located in the coastal region of the country, bordering the Caribbean Sea on the north and **Aragua**, **Miranda**, and the **Distrito Capital** on the south, east, and west. Its capital is La Guaira. It has an area of 1,497 square kilometers (0.16 percent of the country), and its **population** is calculated at 399,018 (2015 census). It has one municipality and 11 parishes. Its name honors **José María Vargas**, who was born there. The La Guaira Port has been one of the area’s most important seaports since the colonial period, and the Maiquetía Airport is the main hub of Venezuela, serving the city of **Caracas**. It formed part of the **Distrito Federal** until in 1998, during **Rafael Caldera**’s second government, it was transformed first into an autonomous municipality and a year later was declared a state of the republic. Its main **economic** source is tourism due to its beaches.

VARGAS, JOSÉ MARÍA (La Guaira, 1786–New York, United States, 1854). Surgeon, **scientist**, professor, politician, rector of the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** (1827), and president of Venezuela (1835–1836). In 1808, he graduated in **medicine** from the Universidad de Caracas. In 1810, he joined the independence movement and, in 1812, after the fall of the **First Republic**, was taken prisoner. A year later, he was released, deciding to leave

the country and travel to Edinburgh in order to complete his medical studies. In 1825, he returned to practice at the Universidad de Caracas as professor of anatomy. Appointed by **Simón Bolívar** as rector of the newly renamed Universidad Central de Venezuela, he started to reform the old colonial institute into a modern institution with republican thought. He also founded the Sociedad Médica de Caracas. In 1829, he was the first director of the **Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País**. In 1835, as the first administration of General **José Antonio Páez** ended, a political faction, mainly civilians, considered Vargas ideal to be the next president. Although he disagreed, he took the offer and won election for the period 1835–1839, being the first civilian to hold the office. Nonetheless, **Santiago Mariño** led a section of the military in the **Revolución de las Reformas** in July 1835, an armed movement that overthrew Vargas and sent him into exile. **Pedro Carujo** held him prisoner, at one point saying to him, “Doctor Vargas, the world belongs to the brave,” to which Vargas replied, “The world belongs to the fair man.” These phrases have remained vivid reflections of the Venezuelan struggle between civil government and militarism. In short time, thanks to Páez’s actions, Vargas was restored. But in 1836 he resigned and dedicated himself to **education**. In 1842, he presided over the commission for the exhumation of Simón Bolívar’s remains, soon to be repatriated. Vargas also developed numerous geological and botanical studies, and some plants hold the name of *Vargasia* after him. Since 1877, Vargas’s remains have rested in the **National Pantheon**.

VARGAS TRAGEDY. Name given to a natural disaster that occurred in December 1999 and destroyed many coastal towns along the Venezuelan Caribbean, especially those located in **Vargas State**. It was triggered by torrential rain originating in low atmospheric pressure zones and climatic disturbances in the mountainous system of Venezuela’s coast. Due to the fury of the rain, enormous mudslides occurred, as well as heavy floods, causing immense damage. The tragedy of Vargas can be understood by examining a combination of different human and natural elements. The human elements include the locations and the risk exposure of towns and villages situated at the feet of the coastal mountains, as well as the lack of immediate response from security and rescue groups. Natural causes include the unpredictability of the disaster, despite repeated warnings from specialists, and the gradual increase in rainfall in the days before 15 December. Although it is named after the most damaged region, several places along the Venezuelan coast were affected, including sites in **Miranda, Falcón, and Anzoátegui States**. The number of victims is controversial. Conservative data estimates 7,000 victims, but others elevate the number to 30,000, including missing people. *See also* NATURAL DISASTERS.

VÉLASQUEZ, RAMÓN J. (Colón, 1916–Caracas, 2014). Journalist, historian, politician, and president of Venezuela (1993–1994). The author of important and copious work, he spent his childhood in **Táchira** and moved to **Caracas** to study at the Liceo **Andrés Bello**. In 1943, he graduated as a lawyer from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. He started early in **journalism**, working in newspapers like *El Nacional* and *El País*. He was part of the founding teams of the newspaper *El Mundo* and the magazine *El Siglo*. Involved in politics, he supported the **Trienio** government and fought the regime of **Marcos Pérez Jiménez** through the publication of *El Libro Negro de la Dictadura*, written in alliance with José Agustín Catalá and Simón Alberto Consalvi. In that book, they denounced the abuses of the **military dictatorship**. After **January 23, 1958**, he held governmental positions, such as secretary of the presidency for **Rómulo Betancourt** (1959–1963), minister of communications during the government of **Rafael Caldera** (1969–1971), and seats in the National Congress as deputy and senator. He presided between 1984 and 1986 over the **Comisión Presidencial para la Reforma del Estado (COPRE)**. He was appointed by the Congress as president of Venezuela to complete the term of **Carlos Andrés Pérez**, from 5 June 1993 to 2 February 1994. This brief presidency was a period of profound political, **economic**, and military instability, but Velásquez maneuvered to organize presidential elections and peacefully handed the office to Rafael Caldera. In addition, he is remembered for promoting the creation of archival repositories such as the Archivo Histórico de Miraflores. As well, he compiled the fundamental work of *Pensamiento Político Venezolano* (19th and 20th centuries) and created the series Library of Authors and Topics of Táchira. He wrote *La caída del liberalismo amarillo: tiempo y drama de Antonio Paredes* and *Confidencias imaginarias de Juan Vicente Gómez*. He became a member of the **National Academy of History** in 1964.

VÉLAZ, JOSÉ MARÍA (Rancagua, Chile, 1910–San Ignacio del Masparro, 1985). Jesuit priest and educator, founder of the **Fe y Alegría** movement. He was principal of the Colegio San José in **Mérida** when he was transferred to the Universidad Católica **Andrés Bello** of **Caracas**. In 1955, with some of his students, he undertook the establishment of a school in the working-class neighborhood of Catia. The worker Abraham Reyes helped him with his house, where the school was established. By 1960, Fe y Alegría was already an important movement and Vélaz was dedicated full-time to it. He died when traveling to the **Amazon** and the *llanos*.

VENEZUELA (GENERAL CAPTAINCY). Political-territorial unit created by King Charles III by royal decree on 8 September 1777. A fundamental step in the process of integration of the provinces that would later constitute

the Republic of **Venezuela**, the royal order subordinated the provinces of **Maracaibo**, **Guayana**, **Trinidad**, **Margarita**, and **Nueva Andalucía**, in administrative and military areas, to the governor and general captain (commander of the troops) of **Caracas**. This was the first step toward unifying such provinces under a unique authority located in Caracas. With the dismissal of General Captain **Vicente Emparan** in 1810, the crisis that would end up destroying the captaincy began. Although nominally it continued to exist, in the territories controlled by the republicans the new Venezuelan nation was formed, separated from Spain. During the **Gran Colombia** period, its territory was divided into the departments of Orinoco, **Zulia**, and **Venezuela**. Once the separation took place in 1830, the new state of Venezuela returned to the limits of the captaincy and was legally considered its heir, a principle that remains in place today.

VENEZUELA (PROVINCE). A territorial and political unit created by a royal charter of Charles V on 27 March 1528. It extended from west to east from Cabo de la Vela on the **Guajira Peninsula** to Maracapaná, a point in the current **Anzoátegui State**. It extended north to south “from the sea to the other,” that is, from the Caribbean Sea to the nonexistent South Sea, the ocean Europeans looked for as a route to Asia. The province was created to be given for administration to the German **Welser** family of bankers, who ruled it until 1545. From then, it was run directly by the Crown. It began to be called the **Caracas Province** when in 1622 **Maracaibo** and its territory, including the **Gulf of Venezuela**, were separated to be included in the **Mérida Province**. It is the basis of the current **Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela**. *See also* KLEIN-VENEDIG; TIERRA FIRME.

VENEZUELA (WORD). It literally means “Little Venice.” Traditionally, the attribution of the name belongs to **Amerigo Vespucci**, to whom the *palafitos* or stilt houses of the **Gulf of Venezuela** seemed reminiscent of Venice (*Venezia* in Italian). Vespucci traveled on the expedition of **Alonso de Ojeda** and **Juan de la Cosa**, and the first written instance of the word is on the map that de la Cosa elaborated in 1500. When in 1528 the Emperor Charles V created a province to be administered by the **Welser** family, he called it the **Venezuela Province**. In German documents, it was called **Klein-Venedig**. *See also* TIERRA FIRME.

VENEZUELAN ACADEMY OF LANGUAGE. Institution created in 1883 during the administration of **Antonio Guzmán Blanco** (who was its first director) according to an agreement with the Real Academia Española de la Lengua. Among its main objectives are to publish books that contrib-

ute to a better understanding of the Spanish language and to watch over the language's unity and correctness. Its members also work constantly in the gathering of lexical data, such as *venezolanismos* and *americanismos*, for dictionaries.

VENEZUELAN CRISIS OF 1902. Name given to the international crisis unleashed by the blockade of the Venezuelan coast by German and British ships between December 1902 and February 1903. Although the formal cause of the blockade was the suspension of payments of Venezuelan **external debt**, there were deeper geopolitical variables. First, Germany desired a colony in the Caribbean, for which it had planned to annex **Margarita Island**. In addition, the expansionist Great Britain was dissatisfied with the result of the **Paris Arbitral Award** (1899), even though it had retained the **Essequibo Territory**, because it denied control of the **Orinoco River**. The fleets captured and sank Venezuelan ships in La Guaira and bombed Puerto Cabello. In January 1903, two German cruisers were repulsed at the castle of San Carlos, on the reef of **Maracaibo**, due to the danger that they would run aground. These attacks had several consequences. Internally, the crisis served to unleash a great nationalist reaction that strengthened the government of **Cipriano Castro**, who was facing the **Revolución Libertadora**, also supported from abroad. At an external level, it made Argentine Chancellor Luis María Drago postulate the Drago Doctrine, according to which it is illegitimate to collect countries' debts by force. But primarily above all, the crisis produced the Roosevelt Corollary. Indeed, as it had done in the case of the Essequibo, Venezuela appealed to the **United States**, based on the Monroe Doctrine. President Theodore Roosevelt not only pressed diplomatically the attacking powers but also mobilized his fleet to the area. Thanks to this, with the signing of the Protocol of Washington (1903), Castro agreed to pay and the blockade was suspended. But as Castro soon fell into breaches of his commitments, Roosevelt postulated that if the United States had to defend Latin American countries, they also had the right to intervene in them to guarantee their order and legality. Due to his resistance of the blockade, Castro is considered an anti-imperialist hero in Venezuela.

VESPUCCI, AMERIGO (Florence, Italy, 1454–Seville, Spain, 1512). Explorer and merchant, in whose honor the American continents are named. The creator of the word *Venezuela*, his name is treated in Spanish as Américo Vesputio. He was a manager for the famous Médici House in Seville when he learned of the first voyage of **Christopher Columbus**. Interested in the **economic** potential of the discoveries, he invested in many of them, including the third voyage of Columbus. In 1499, he decided to go himself to the

Indies in the expedition of **Alonso de Ojeda**. They went along the entire northern coast of South America, from the **Essequibo Territory** to Panama. When entering the **Gulf of Venezuela**, he came up with the name Venezuela (“Little Venice”) when he saw the *palafitos* (**aboriginal** stilt houses over the water). The economic success of the expedition was so great that he was later hired by King Manuel I of Portugal to participate in that country’s voyages. Between 1501 and 1502, he also traveled to the southern part of South America. In 1504, he returned to Spain to work for the Spanish Crown as major pilot of the Contracting House, having technical control of all expeditions to America. That same year he published *Mondus Novus*, filled with all his knowledge of the new continent, which gave him international fame. In 1505, he published *Lettera di Amerigo Vespucci delle isole nuovamente trovate in quattro suoi viaggi*, translated by cartographer Martin Waldseemüller as *Quattuor Americi Vespucij navigationes* and attached as an appendix to his *Cosmographiae Introductio* (1507). This became a sales success. Waldseemüller proposed in this piece to name the New World “America,” and the name was historically imposed by others.

VIERNES NEGRO (BLACK FRIDAY). The **bolívar** currency, historically stable for decades at an exchange rate of around 4.30 per U.S. dollar, was devalued on Friday, 18 February 1983, under the presidency of **Luis Herrera Campins**. The inflationary process that started in the 1970s, the decline of **oil** prices in the early 1980s, the great amount of **external debt** contracted by the nation, and a massive capital flight undermined confidence in the **economy** and triggered a crisis in the currency account balance. The devaluation of the bolívar came along with the implementation of an exchange control mechanism, RECAD, which lasted until 1989.

VIGAS, OSWALDO (Valencia, 1926–Caracas, 2014). Painter and sculptor. In 1943, he won a medal of honor in the **Arturo Michelena** Contest for his work *Hojas Rojas*. In 1949, he went to **Caracas** to study **medicine** but decided to dedicate his life to **art**. In 1953, he participated in the synthesis of arts promoted at the **University Central de Venezuela**, with works of art that still remain there. Around the 1960s, he got in touch with exponents of informalism, an experience that would influence him in his future work. In a time when figurative and abstract movements were struggling against each other, Vigas took the best of both and fused them to create an original style that cannot be labeled by the aesthetic tendencies of that time, as can be seen in pieces like *Café de la Paix* (1933) and *Gran Bruja* (1952).

VILLA DE CURA. Capital of the municipality of Zamora in **Aragua State**, with approximately 90,000 inhabitants. Founded on 25 May 1722, by Juan de

Bolívar de Martínez y Villegas, grandfather of **Simón Bolívar**, it is located on the road that connected the *llanos* with the central region of Venezuela, and the city played a strategic role during the **War of Independence**. It had an important role during the 19th and the first half of the 20th century in **agriculture** and cattle trading. It was briefly the capital of the Gran Estado **Miranda** in the second half of the 19th century.

VILLALBA, JÓVITO (Pampatar, 1908–Caracas, 1989). Politician and professor. He was one of the main impellers of democratic thought in Venezuela in the 20th century. He started to study **law** at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** in 1926. In 1927, he was the leader of the Centro de Estudiantes de Venezuela. In 1928, he actively organized the protest against **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s tyranny, becoming a prominent member of **Generación del 28**. After giving a speech in front of the **National Pantheon** and being involved in all the events of the revolts, he was imprisoned for seven years, leaving jail only after Gómez's demise. He then dedicated his life to political activity. In 1936, he has an outstanding participation in the events of 14 February 1936, in which a demonstration of university students, professionals, and workers placed before President **Eleazar López Contreras** a set of political and social demands. In 1945, he became a founding member and general secretary of **Unión Republicana Democrática**. In 1952, when **Marcos Pérez Jiménez**'s dictatorship convened a constituent assembly, Villalba competed for a seat for **Caracas**, getting the most votes. However, an electoral fraud was executed, and as Pérez Jiménez assumed the presidency, he was forced into exile. Back in Venezuela after **January 23, 1958**, he worked for the unity of all the democratic forces in order to preserve democracy. Along with **Rómulo Betancourt** and **Rafael Caldera**, he signed the **Pacto de Puntofijo**. He launched an unsuccessful presidential candidacy in 1963 and in 1973. Through the years his popularity and political importance have gradually decreased, as his party was plunged into internal problems that made it lose its great electoral strength. In 1988, his wife, Ismenia Villalba, ran for the presidency of the republic, becoming the first **woman** to do so.

VILLALOBOS, ALDONZA (Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, 1520–Madrid, Spain, 1575). Governor of **Margarita Island** between 1535 and 1575. She inherited the governorship from his father, Marcelo Villalobos. Married to the conqueror Pedro Ortiz Sandoval, during her term the city of La Asunción was founded and **agriculture** was fomented. She manage to have the Council of the Indies grant the governorship to her grandson, Juan Sarmiento de Villandrado. *See also* MANRIQUE DE VILLALOBOS, ISABEL.

VILLANUEVA, CARLOS RAÚL (London, England, 1900–Caracas, 1975). Architect. The son of a Venezuelan diplomat, he lived in Europe until 1928. After his graduation from the École Nationale Supérieure des Beaux-Arts of Paris, he traveled for the first time to Venezuela, settling there one year later. Due to **oil** industry development, Venezuela started to experience significant **economic** growth. Real estate and construction were among the most profitable **businesses** as society started the urbanizing process and the government funded numerous public works. Villanueva inserted himself into this trend and by 1934 gained his first important project, the Bullring of Maracay (**Aragua State**). It was the beginning of a successful career as an architect. In 1937, he went to Paris to study at the Institute of Urbanism. In 1943, he was awarded the project of rebuilding the neighborhood of El Silencio in **Caracas**. The designs of the buildings, a mix of modernity and traditional Venezuelan architecture, are still considered a landmark in the history of Latin American architecture. Nonetheless, his masterpiece is the Ciudad Universitaria, the campus of **Universidad Central de Venezuela (UCV)** in Caracas, opened in 1954. Designed under the criteria of a “synthesis of the arts,” he produced a combination of architecture, sculpture, and painting, considered an example of modern art of the mid-20th century. In 2000, UNESCO declared Ciudad Universitaria a World Heritage Site. Between 1951 and 1955, he directed the TABO (Taller del Banco Obrero, Workshop of the Workers Bank) and designed numerous apartment blocks, participating in projects of social housing. He was one of the founders of the School of Architecture of the UCV. In 1950, he published *Caracas de ayer y hoy* and in 1966 *Caracas en tres tiempos*. In 2015, his work was exhibited at the Museum of Modern Art in New York.

VILLAVICENCIO, RAFAEL (Caracas, 1838–Caracas, 1920). Thinker, professor, and politician. He introduced positivism to Venezuela. Founder of the chair of universal history at the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**, he was the university’s rector between 1895 and 1898. His ideas about history and society were key to the education of the intellectual generation that ruled Venezuela during the first half of the 20th century. Toward the end of his life, he became a theosophist and founded the Theosophical Society of Venezuela. A member of the **Venezuelan Academy of Language** (1899) and of the **National Academy of History** (1900), among his works are *Las ciencias contemporáneas* (1920) and *La evolución social y política de Venezuela* (1900).

VILLEGAS, GUILLERMO TELL (Valencia, 1823–Valencia, 1907). Lawyer, politician, educator, and writer. He was provisional president of Venezuela in 1868, 1870, and 1892. He graduated as a lawyer from the

Universidad Central de Venezuela. His days of importance began with the **Federal War**. In 1859, he was governor of **Barinas**. In 1863, he was a deputy of the Assembly of La Victoria (**Aragua State**). He was one of the defendants of the abolition of the death penalty when acting as minister of the interior and justice under President **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**. After the **Revolución Azul** (1868), he was appointed provisional president to ensure a peaceful transition. When the **Revolución de Abril** (1870) took Caracas, he was again appointed provisional president while the old government ended and the new came on. In 1892, he assumed the same task when the government of **Raimundo Andueza Palacio** collapsed due to the **Revolución Legalista** of **Joaquín Crespo**. Gifted with extraordinary mediation skills, he enjoyed the great respect of his contemporaries. He authored several textbooks.

VIRGIN OF COROMOTO. Our Lady of Coromoto is the country's patroness. Pope Pius II officially declared her the Heavenly and Principal Patroness of Venezuela on 11 September 1952. Her origins go back to 1652, when, according to legend, near Guanare, in the present **Portuguesa State**, a *cacique* named Coromoto met the virgin. He tried to take her, only to grab a holy card with the image of the Virgin Mary. Since then, the image has been venerated. On 10 February 1996, the National Sanctuary of Our Lady of Coromoto in Guanare was inaugurated with a solemn Eucharist presided over by His Holiness Pope John Paul II. *See also* CATHOLIC CHURCH.

VISUAL ARTS. *Colonial period (16th to 19th Centuries): Baroque.* The origins of Venezuelan visual arts were Hispanic. From the 17th century, painters came from Europe, but soon local schools were developed. Most painters were anonymous, although some can be traced, like the so-called Pintor de El Tocuyo, the creator of *La Inmaculada Concepción entre San José y el niño* (1707) among other works. By the 18th century, painters had improved their technique, as a result of better cultural refinement. Most of the paintings were **religious**, as can be seen in *La Virgen del Rosario* (1767) by **Juan Pedro López** and works from the School of Landaeta like *San Luis de Tolosa* (1761) and *La Inmaculada Concepción* (1798).

Republican Period (19th and 20th Centuries): Academic Art. Around 1830, there was abundant production of portraits and historical paintings. **Juan Lovera** (*El 19 de abril de 1810*, 1835) and Lewis B. Adams (*Retrato del general Páez*, 1838) were among the first artists to enter the new artistic current. The first landscape paintings were also produced on **Carmelo Fernández's** canvases (*Pueblo y hacienda de Pancho*, 1851). During **Antonio Guzmán Blanco's** administration (1870–1888), the government replaced the **Catholic Church** as the main patron of the arts. In 1877, the **Fine Arts**

Academy was founded. New artists had an academic **education** and painted heroic themes based on the **War of Independence**. From that period emerged four of the most important painters of the century: **Martín Tovar y Tovar** (*Batalla de Carabobo*, 1887), **Arturo Michelena** (*Miranda en La Carraca*, 1896), **Cristóbal Rojas** (*La muerte de Girardot en Bárbula*, 1883), and **Antonio Herrera Toro** (*Ricaurte en San Mateo*, 1882).

Círculo de Bellas Artes. At the beginning of the 20th century, protests by young artists from the Fine Arts Academy against Herrera Toro led to the creation in 1912 of the **Círculo de Bellas Artes**, whose members (**Manuel Cabré**, Federico Brandt, Luis Alfredo López Méndez) were characterized by the study of the scenery as a main motif. From **Juan Vicente Gómez**'s death, new avenues of artistic creation opened up. From Armando Barrios's figures (*Cantoria*, 1933) to **Héctor Poleo**'s surrealism (*Ocaso*, 1949) and **Armando Reverón**'s investigations of tropical light (*Paisaje blanco*, 1934), art was expanded regularly.

Avant-garde. In 1951, the group called Los Disidentes published a manifesto entitled "No" wherein they repudiated false art and postulated a renovation. To that purpose, artists like **Alejandro Otero** made his *Coloritmos* (1959). In the 1960s, the two representatives of kinetic art worked in the country: **Jesús Soto**, whose aesthetic focus was the relation between time and space in the work of art and how to synthesize its forms (*Penetrables*); and **Carlos Cruz Diez**, who searched for the expressive possibilities of color through his *Cámaras de cromosaturación*. Both of them mixed **science**, technology, and art. In some cases, their works are integrated into public environments. From then on, numerous aesthetic proposals have taken place, including performance (Carlos Zepa) and installation art (Milton Becerra, Alberto Asprino). Many of these discourses presented aesthetic composition as plural, using resources from many kinds of visual arts such as photography, video, sculpture, drawing, environmental waste, and more. *See also* MUSEUMS.

VOLLMER HERRERA, GUSTAVO JULIO (Caracas, 1923–Caracas, 2014). Civil **engineer**, agriculturalist, **businessman**, **banker**, and sportsman. He ran one of the largest **economic** groups in Venezuela. Focused mainly in sugar mills, the group ran Central El Palmar and other sugarcane facilities across the country. A major shareholder of Banco Mercantil, he promoted corporate social responsibility, sponsoring **Fe y Alegría** and Dividendo Voluntario para la Comunidad. He was a member of the Founding Council of Universidad Católica **Andrés Bello**, and his family donated the land on which the university is located. He was also the president of the World Scout Association and the Scouts Association of Venezuela.

W

WAR OF INDEPENDENCE. Name by which the warlike conflict between 1811 and 1824 to achieve the independence of Venezuela is known. It was the bloodiest conflict in Venezuelan history in which, through direct or indirect consequences, a third of the **population** was lost. Throughout the war, different factions with different intentions operated, although always enclosed in the essential division between those who sought autonomous government and those who chose to remain united to the Spanish Crown. From a general position, three periods can be distinguished. The first was the civil war between 1811 and 1813, when the confrontations were basically between city militias. On one side were the followers of the **Caracas Supreme Junta** and the republic established in **Caracas**, and on the other those who followed the regency and the Spanish government in Cádiz. The second period was a social and racial war, with a rebellion led by **José Tomás Boves** (1814–1815). The last period saw the internationalization of the war (1815–1824), with the arrival of Spanish troops in the expedition commanded by **Pablo Morillo**, the founding of **Gran Colombia**, and the expedition to Peru. The war can also be delimited by the **War to Death** period, between 1814 and 1820, and the regularized war stage, starting in 1820 with the **Trujillo Agreements**.

WAR TO DEATH. *See* GUERRA A MUERTE.

WARAO PEOPLE. **Aboriginal** people who live in the **Orinoco River** region and the Guianas. They have close ties with the river and traditionally live in *palafitos*, houses above the water, and their diet is based on river products. They possess a language separate from any other linguistic group. The group is considered one of the most ancient in current Venezuelan territory. *See also* CARIBBEAN PEOPLE; PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD.

WAYÚU PEOPLE. Traditionally known as Guajiros, the Wayúu constitute the largest **aboriginal** group in Venezuela with 415,978 people (2011), while another 300,000 live in **Colombia**. Their original territory is the **Guajira Peninsula**, but given their high integration into the rest of Venezuelan society, they have migrated toward many regions of the country. The Wayúu

are an ethnic group of **Arawak** filiation that was able to resist all conquest attempts until the 19th century. In 1769, they led a large rebellion that endangered Riohacha and made Spanish authorities mobilize troops from **Maracaibo**. In the 1870s, they submitted to Colombian and Venezuelan expeditions. The Wayúu now practice the **Catholic** religion, but in a syncretistic way combined with their traditional rituals. In the same way, they were able to maintain traditional **economic** activities based in shepherding and trading with the local population. *See also* CARIBBEAN PEOPLE; PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD.

WELSERS, THE. German merchant **bankers** from Augsburg, lenders to the Spanish Crown. In 1528, they signed a contract with Emperor Charles V that gave them the rights to govern and exploit the **province of Venezuela**. As *adelantados*, they were assigned lands, privileges, and the right to introduce the first black **slaves** to America. Among the key Welser representatives in Venezuela were **Ambrosio Alfinger**, **Jorge Spira**, **Phillippe Von Hutten**, and **Nicolaus Federman**. They were accused and put on trial for not meeting the commitments of the contract with the Spanish Crown, evading taxes, and being an obstacle to the colonization efforts. Their contract was terminated in 1542. Nevertheless, the Welsers played a key role in the exploration of Venezuela and **Colombia**.

WOMEN. Since the 1990s, important research regarding gender has been developed in Venezuela. However, there is a lot that still remains to be investigated in this area, so any attempt to make a global characterization of the place of women in Venezuelan society is strictly partial. In this sense, the following scheme should be understood as a preliminary proposal based on the main works in the area.

Pre-Hispanic Period. The status of women differed in each of the **original** cultures that occupied the territory that is now Venezuela. In cultures such as those with **Caribbean** bonds, polygamy existed, and women were commonly treated as spoils of war; in cultures like the **Arawak**, matriarchy in many cases was practiced (and still is). This reveals the significant differences among the peoples of the territory. In general, however, within the social and sexual division of labor, native women tended to collect and develop handicrafts (basketry and pottery). Religious practices also had an important role; the so-called Venus de Tacarigua, anthropomorphic figures elaborated by *valencioides* cultures (people from **Valencia**), but found also in the Caribbean **islands**, represent a female deity with a protruding pubic area, which is probably associated with the fertility of women, as well as of fishing and land. This largely reflects the importance given to women (or at least to mothers), often on an equal scale to man.

Colonial Period. With the arrival of colonial society at the beginning of the 16th century, the typical family structures and gender relations of European Christianity were imposed. As finally instituted in the *Constituciones Sinodales* (rules for the functioning of the diocese established by the bishops gathered in synod) of **Caracas** in 1687, fathers were considered as destined by God to lead society. In many areas, women were legally dependent on parents and, later, husbands. For native women the change was radical, either because they became the wives of conquerors or because in the villages the **Catholic religion** imposed the roles of Spanish society on women. There is no conclusive evidence that sexual exploitation or rape was a systematic practice in the period. It is noteworthy that **Alonso de Ojeda**, one of the first governors of what is now Venezuela and **Colombia**, married an indigenous woman whom he named Isabel. Likewise, the conqueror **Francisco Fajardo** was the son of an indigenous woman. The natives began to be employed in domestic service, which was encouraged from the 17th century, and women were prohibited from plowing, mowing, weeding, and planting. With the arrival of black slaves, black women gradually filled that role in the central and eastern regions of what is now Venezuela. Although many women worked in the collection of **cocoa**, others distinguished themselves as midwives and nannies. Not in vain, the two most famous slaves of Venezuelan history, Hipólita and Matea Bolívar, are remembered as nannies of **Simón Bolívar**. They represent a whole class of women widespread at the time. As slaves, women played another important **economic** role, that of slave makers through their fertility. The value of a slave grew as she entered childbearing age. However, there were also many women who carried out their own ventures as entrepreneurs, such as seamstresses, cooks, musicians, and singers. Even many slaves were able to pay for their freedom or their children's freedom with money obtained by these means. This was the case with the famous **Bejarano Sisters**, inventors of the cake that still bears their name. They were *pardas* (mixed-race women with black blood) who as cooks were able to accumulate enough money to buy the benefits of the royal charter "Gracias al Sacar" (1795), which gave them the privileges of whites. In addition, there were other enterprises for less visible women: shamanism, practiced by many indigenous and black women; and prostitution, of which there are records in Caracas from the mid-17th century. Among the elite, although the role of mother and wife was assigned to women, many main ladies or *principales* (from the *mantuano* elite) managed plantations after they were widowed. Nevertheless, where the ladies of the elite gained the most freedom was in the convents. In 1688, the first woman musician of whom we have knowledge appears: Sister Cathalina, a teacher at the Chapel of the Convent of the Conceptionists at Caracas. At the end of the 18th century, the first female Venezuelan writer was recognized, the Carmelite sister Sor María de Los Ángeles (1770–1818). In 1768, the first girls' school in Caracas opened.

Independence and Republic. The establishment of the republic and the progressive rise of liberalism did not mean an essential change in feminine roles. When the rights of citizenship were established, women were notably placed in a position of inferiority. In fact, the Code of Judicial Procedure of 1836 completely subjected a married woman to her husband. But women were very active in the independence struggle, from the meetings of the Patriotic Society (1811) to the camps and battlefields, the role of wife and mother continued to be the ideal for republican woman. Many occupy a place in the pantheon of independence heroes, including Juana Ramírez (1790–1856), known as “La Avanzadora” (The Advancer), who led military operations, and **Josefa Camejo** (1791–1870), to whom is attributed the direction of an uprising in the **province of Coro**. However, the main heroine is **Luisa Cáceres de Arismendi** (1799–1866), wife of **Juan Bautista Arismendi**, who was arrested in Venezuela and Cádiz and lost a daughter at birth while imprisoned. She, however, is seen more as a matron and exemplary wife, to the detriment of other women who acted more directly in the war. Many women also managed the haciendas while their husbands and fathers were at war, imprisoned, or exiled. Probably the most transcendental change was experienced by slaves with the so-called **Law** of Freedom of the Womb (Manumission Act of 1821), which, although leaving them in a condition of **slavery**, liberated their wombs, putting an end to one of their fundamental economic functions: the reproduction of slavery. From these laws, the principle by which people could be “born a slave” was finished. Now the children of slaves would be *manumisos* (slaves in process of liberation), only under the control of the master until their 18th birthday. This law was very important to the abolition of slavery in 1854. The other major change was the loss of importance of convent life, until its complete proscription in 1874 (which, as we shall see, did not mean that the dynamic of the religious life changed). Once Venezuela became an independent country, women continued their traditional activities as mothers and wives, and those from popular extraction worked as domestic help and in other jobs defined as “proper for their sex.” The Law of Public Instruction of 1870, which propelled the creation of schools, caused many girls to begin working as teachers. In 1882, this generated an important advance: married women were named masters, clarifying that the husband’s power as head of the house did not extend to her work. It was the first step toward women educating themselves. In 1885, the first teacher, María Oquendo, graduated from the Federal College of **Maracaibo**, and in 1893 the Normal School of Women was founded in Caracas. Soon, teachers like Socorro González Guinán and Antonia Esteller became famous, publishing school textbooks. In 1890, a group of writers from **Coro** directed by Polita De Lima (1869–1944) founded the magazine *Armonía Literaria*. By the end

of the century, some women were working in areas other than teaching: in 1899, three sisters, Dolores Delfina, Delfina Matilde, and Adriana Delfina Duarte, graduated as surveyors from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela** (although they had to study from home). However, it was in religious life, without guardianship of husbands or fathers, that many women reached higher achievements. The arrival in Venezuela in 1888 of the Sisters of San José de Tarbes for the administration of the Vargas Hospital helped improve **medicine**. Religious, such as Madre Emilia de San José (1858–1893) and Candelaria de San José (1863–1940), recently beatified, built numerous schools, hospitals, and orphanages.

20th to 21st Centuries. With the democratic opening of 1936 and the arrival of new ways of thinking, such as socialism, communism, and social Christianity, feminist thought began to spread in Venezuela. There was already intense female activity in cultural settings, such as in the Ateneo de Caracas (1931), or in charity, such as La Gota de Leche (1909), to address malnutrition among poor children. However, the search for equality was associated with democratic movements. The Patriotic Society of Women (1928) and the Venezuelan Women's Association (1936), along with female leaders in the leftist movements, brought up issues such as women's **education**, equal pay, women's health, simplification of divorce procedures, and the right to vote. At the same time, in the **oil** economy, an ever-widening group of women joined the labor camps. The urbanization of society also helped to break with the old family structures. In 1945, women were granted the right to vote in municipal elections, and in 1946 in the presidential elections. Fourteen women were elected deputies in the National Constituent Assembly of 1946. Meanwhile, more and more women began to attend schools, colleges, and universities. In the 1960s, these struggles deepened. In 1968, Aura Cecilia Casanova became the first woman to be named a minister in Venezuela, leading the Planning Ministry. In 1969, the Movement for the Liberation of Women, self-proclaimed feminists, was created. From then, the promotion of women's equality was assumed as a state policy until the establishment of the Ministry for the Participation of Women in Development in 1979, headed by Mercedes Pulido de Briceño. From this ministry was promoted the reform of the civil code in 1982, which enshrines the equality of women in marriage. That same year, a law against all forms of discrimination against women was also approved. The Constitution of 1999 brought the 1982 reforms to the constitutional level. In 1998, a law against violence against women was proclaimed, expanded by another in 2006. In 2016, differences in the criminal code for adultery, which until then punished women with more severity, were dissolved. With the **Bolivarian Revolution**, numerous women have held positions of high importance in public administration. This is presented by

the state as a test of progress in equality. Nevertheless, problems in the real independence of these positions against the executive have generated many doubts. And reforms have not always manifested equality in practical terms. Although 55 percent of the workforce is female and 60 percent of those are women who underwent university studies, the difference in salaries between men and women is 14.2 percent (the lowest in Latin America). There is still inequality in aspects such as domestic violence and sexual harassment, and for feminists the issue of abortion is prominent, as it is still banned in Venezuela. In social terms, the second half of the 20th century saw an important change with the rise of *familia matricentrada* (not matriarchy exactly, but women as heads of households where husbands do not play an important role). Family structure is woven around the mother, with very weak male participation. This can be seen as an example of the advancement of the situation of women in society, undermining patriarchy, but does not always bring a condition of equality with the husband in the daily dynamic. *See also* DE LA PARRA, TERESA.

Y

YANES, FRANCISCO JAVIER (Puerto Príncipe, Cuba, 1777–Caracas, 1842). Lawyer and historian. In 1807, he obtained a degree in civil law from the **University of Caracas**. In 1810, he joined the **April 19** movement. In 1811, he took part in the sessions of the Patriotic Society and acted as a deputy in the Constitutional **Congress of 1811**, where he signed the Declaration of Independence and the first **constitution** of Venezuela. In 1819, he was appointed by the **Angostura Congress** as a member of the Supreme Court of Venezuela, which from 1821 was moved to Bogotá. In 1826, he was appointed its president. Between 1824 and 1825, with **Cristóbal Mendoza**, he published the **newspaper** *El Observador Caraqueño*. From 1826, both started the first collection of documents regarding **Simón Bolívar**, *Colección de documentos relativos a la vida pública del Libertador de Colombia y del Perú, Simón Bolívar*, finishing in 1833 with 22 published volumes. In 1829, he was one of the founders of the **Sociedad Económica de Amigos del País**. In 1830, after the separation of Venezuela from **Gran Colombia**, he was appointed a deputy to the **Valencia Congress**, where he served as its president and signed the constitution of that year. In 1839, he published the *Manual político del venezolano* and in 1840 *Compendio de la historia de Venezuela desde su descubrimiento hasta que se declaró estado independiente*. After his death were published *Relación documentada de los principales sucesos ocurridos en Venezuela desde que se declaró Estado independiente hasta 1821*, *Historia de la provincia de Cumaná*, and *Historia de Margarita*. His remains rest in the **National Pantheon**.

YANOMAMI PEOPLE. **Aboriginal** group living in the Venezuelan and Brazilian **Amazonas** (around 40,000 inhabitants), characterized by being able to maintain their culture and isolation from Western influence. Even though in the 18th century the first contact was made, it was not until the 20th century that communication became more frequent, triggering great interest among researchers. Nonetheless, since the 1990s, illegal **mining** activities in their territory have generated problems, such as the spread of diseases. *See also* CARIBBEAN PEOPLE; PRE-HISPANIC PERIOD.

YARACUY (STATE). It is located in the west of the country, bordering **Falcón** on the north, **Portuguesa** and **Cojedes** on the south, **Carabobo** on the east, and **Lara** on the west. Its capital is Guanare. It has an area of 7,100 square kilometers (0.77 percent of the country), and its **population** is calculated at 693,876 (2015 census). Its name comes from a river and is of **aboriginal** origin. It has 14 municipalities and two parishes. In 1855, the National Congress created the autonomous province of Yaracuy. Its **economic** activities are linked mainly to **agriculture**, such as corn, bananas, sugarcane, **coffee**, oranges, and **cocoa**. There is also bovine and porcine breeding thanks to the state's plains.

Z

ZAMORA, EZEQUIEL (Cúa, 1817–San Carlos, 1860). Caudillo and politician. A merchant, he became a follower of the **Liberal Party**. During the elections of 1846, he led along with Francisco Rangel a peasant rebellion in support of the Liberal candidate, **Antonio Leocadio Guzmán**. Already at that time he professed radical discourse, creating slogans such as “Lands and Free Men.” Defeated, he was captured and condemned to death, although he escaped. This episode raised his popularity. With the arrival to power of the Liberals in 1848, he was incorporated into the army, ascending to the rank of general. In 1856, he married Estéfana Falcón, sister of **Juan Crisóstomo Falcón**, which linked him to the region of **Coro**. When the **Federal War** started, he was second in command after his brother-in-law. After disembarking in Coro, whose garrison had previously rebelled, he organized the province as the first federal state of Venezuela. Between February and December 1859, he became a popular leader of great prestige. His radical speeches and remarkable military successes allowed him to be at the head of a real social rebellion. On 10 December 1859, he obtained a great victory in the **Santa Inés Battle**. A month later, while advancing with his troops toward the center of the country, he was shot and killed by a sniper in San Carlos (**Cojedes State**). Due to the tactical qualities he deployed in combat, he is considered a milestone in Venezuelan military history.

ZULIA (DEPARTAMENT). Political and territorial department of **Gran Colombia**, in effect between 1824 and 1830, encompassing the present states of **Zulia**, **Táchira**, **Mérida**, **Trujillo**, and **Falcón**.

ZULIA (STATE). Located in the northwest of the country, its capital is **Maracaibo**. The state has an area of 63,100 square kilometers (5.50 percent of the country) and a **population** of 3,704,404 (2011 census, 12.79 percent of the country), making it the most populous territory in Venezuela. Zulia is divided into 48,756 square kilometers of land and 14,344 square kilometers of water, with **Maracaibo Lake** providing the primary communication with the Caribbean Sea, especially to **oil** markets. Zulia is the main oil region of Venezuela, with 80 percent of production and 20,000 million barrels of

proven reserves. Even though the oil **economy** radically transformed local society beginning in 1914, the state also maintained a large livestock and **agricultural** industry in the area of south Maracaibo Lake. In Zulia lives 74.3 percent of the Venezuelan **aboriginal** population, representing some 443,544 people (2011). Most of these are **Wayúu** aborigines (or Guajiros, as they are traditionally called). The territory of the old province of Zulia was converted into Zulia State when the federal system was established in 1864. With strong autonomist tendencies, in 1869 the region tried to rebel against the federal authorities in **Caracas**, who had to subdue it by force. In 1881, the Great State of Falcón-Zulia was created with a capital in Capatárida, **Falcón State**, which caused great indignation among Zulia people. Although the Great State was dissolved in 1890, another rebellion in 1892 proposed to create the League of the West to preserve the autonomy of the states. With the development of communication routes and mass media, the autonomist feelings dimmed. A key point was the construction in 1962 of the **Maracaibo Bridge**, which connected the territory with the rest of the country.

ZULOAGA TOVAR, RICARDO (Caracas, 1867–Caracas, 1932). Entrepreneur. In 1888, he graduated as an **engineer** from the **Universidad Central de Venezuela**. In 1895, after studying the feasibility of transporting electricity across a large distance, he founded, with a group of investors, the C.A. La Electricidad de **Caracas**, which became one of the most important private companies in Venezuela. He was its general manager until his death.

ZUMAQUE I. First commercial **oil** well discovered in Venezuela by a multinational in July 1914. It was located by the Caribbean Petroleum Company, a subsidiary of Royal Dutch **Shell**, at La Estrella, on the eastern coast of **Maracaibo Lake**. It was chosen as the location for the ceremony inaugurating **oil nationalization** in 1976. It remains active.

Appendix A

Venezuela at a Glance

Location	Upper northeast corner of South America, just above the equator, entirely within the northern hemisphere
Borders	North: Caribbean Sea; East: Atlantic Ocean and Guyana; South: Brazil; West: Colombia
Area	916,445 square kilometers (around 1.5 times the size of Texas)
Population	31.4 million (2017 estimate by INE, based on 2011 census and historical trend)
Life Expectancy	75.35 years (2017 estimate by INE, based in historical trends)
Climate	Tropical to temperate. Temperature changes are slight, and there are no seasons as known in other latitudes. Seasons are dry (December to April) and rainy (May to November). There is cooler weather from November through February. The hottest months are July and August.
Geographical Highlights	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Largest lake in South America: Maracaibo Lake • Highest waterfall in the world: Angel Falls • Third largest river in Latin America: Orinoco River • Highest aerial cable car in the world: Mérida
Language	Spanish, and in some areas aboriginal dialects
Capital	Caracas, Capital District (INE-estimated 2015 population: 3.3 million)
Government	Representative democracy, with presidential elections every six years
Political-Territorial Division	23 States, a Capital District, Federal Dependencies (islands), and Insular Territory (islands)
Religion	Majority Roman Catholic, but Evangelical Christian, aboriginal, and Afro-Caribbean religions expanded since the 1970s

Currency and Exchange Rates 2016	Monetary unit is the bolívar. Official exchange rates: 10 Bs./USD, 643 Bs./USD, but unofficial exchange rate around 3,000 Bs./USD
Flag	Three horizontal stripes: yellow, blue, and red. The blue stripe contains a semicircle of eight white stars in the center. Official flags also have the coat of arms of Venezuela in the upper left.
GDP 2016 (in Current Prices)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 29,663.27 billion Bs. (IMF) • Estimates of GDP in U.S. dollars: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 333.7 billion (IMF, applying an average exchange rate of 88 Bs./USD) • 46.13 billion (authors' estimate, applying an exchange rate of 643 Bs./USD)
GDP per Capita 2016 (in Current Prices)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 955,966 Bs. (IMF) • Estimates of GDP per capita in U.S. dollars: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10,755 (IMF, applying an average exchange rate of 88 Bs./USD) • 1,486 (authors' estimate, applying an exchange rate of 643 Bs./USD)
GDP Rank in Latin America 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4 out of 32, above Colombia and below Argentina (based on IMF exchange rate of 88 Bs./USD) • 13 out of 32, above Bolivia and below Uruguay (applying an exchange rate of 643 Bs./USD)
GDP per Capita Rank in Latin America 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 11 out of 32, above Grenada and below Costa Rica (based on IMF exchange rate of 88 Bs./USD) • 31 out 32, above Haiti and below Nicaragua (applying an exchange rate of 643 Bs./USD)
GDP Variation (2016 vs. 2015)	–10 percent (2006 IMF estimate)
Unemployment Rate 2016	18.15 percent (IMF)
Inflation Rate Change (2016 vs. 2015)	+720 percent (IMF)
International Reserves	10.9 billion U.S. dollars (Central Bank)
External Debt 2016	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sovereign debt: 41 billion U.S. dollars • PDVSA debt: 44 billion U.S. dollars • Debt from oil agreements with China: 25 billion U.S. dollars • Total debt estimate: 110 billion U.S. dollars

External Debt as Percent of GDP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 33 percent (applying an exchange rate of 88 Bs./USD) • 239 percent (applying an exchange rate of 643 Bs./USD)
Current Account Balance as Percent of GDP	–3.3 percent (IMF)
Percent of Foreign Currency Generated by Oil Exports	96 percent
Crude Oil Production 2015	2,653,900 barrels per day (OPEC)
Domestic Oil Demand 2015	657,900 thousand barrels per day (OPEC)
Crude Oil Exports 2015	1,974,000 barrels per day (OPEC)

Appendix B
Presidents of Venezuela

<i>Period</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Origin of Mandate</i>	<i>End of Mandate</i>
1811–1812	Cristóbal Mendoza	First member of the triumvirate, appointed by Congress to occupy the rotating presidency	Triumvirate appointed by Congress, which had as members Mendoza, Juan Escalona, and Baltasar Padrón	Congress appointed a second triumvirate
1812	Francisco Rodríguez del Toro, Francisco Javier Ustáriz, and Francisco Espejo	Second triumvirate	Appointed by Congress	Congress decreed a dictatorship
1812	Francisco de Miranda	<i>Generalísimo</i> and supreme leader of Venezuela	Dictatorship enacted by Congress	Dissolution of the republic after the Capitulation of San Mateo
1813–1814	Simón Bolívar	Supreme leader of Venezuela and later dictator	Chieftdom assumed de facto and later ratified by an assembly	Dissolution of the republic by the royalist rebellion of 1814
1816–1819	Simón Bolívar	Supreme leader of Venezuela	Named by the officer participants of the Los Cayos Expedition; the charge was ratified by the Assembly of Villa del Norte	The Congress of Angostura appointed him president of the republic
1819	Simón Bolívar	President of Venezuela	Appointed by Congress of Venezuela meeting in Angostura	Integration of Venezuela into Gran Colombia

1819–1830	Simón Bolívar	President of the Republic of Colombia	Appointed by Congress of Gran Colombia, later elected in the electoral process of 1821 and reelected in 1825; in 1828 assumed the dictatorship	Renounced before Congress
1830–1831	José Antonio Páez	Civil and military leader of Venezuela	Appointed by Bolívar civil and military leader of the northern departments of Gran Colombia in 1827, remaining in power after the secession	Elected president in the first elections of Venezuela, after its secession from Colombia
1831–1835	José Antonio Páez	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	End of constitutional period
1835–1836	José María Vargas	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	Stepped down after failed coup attempt
1836–1837	Andrés Narváte	President in charge	Vice president who assumed office after the president stepped down	End of period as vice president
1837–1839	Carlos Soublette	Interim president	Appointed by Congress	End of constitutional period
1839–1843	José Antonio Páez	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	End of constitutional period
1843–1847	Carlos Soublette	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	End of constitutional period
1847–1851	José Tadeo Monagas	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	End of constitutional period
1851–1855	José Gregorio Monagas	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	End of constitutional period
1855–1858	José Tadeo Monagas	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	Ousted by insurrection

(continued)

<i>Period</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Origin of Mandate</i>	<i>End of Mandate</i>
1858–1859	Julián Castro	In charge of the executive	Triumph of insurrection	Ousted by an insurrection
1859	Pedro Gual	In charge of the executive	Assumed power as first designated once Castro was ousted	Transferred power to elected successor
1859–1861	Manuel Felipe Tovar	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	Stepped down before Congress
1861	Pedro Gual	President in charge	Vice president who assumes office after the president stepped down	Ousted by military coup
1861–1863	José Antonio Páez	Supreme leader of the republic	Assumed dictatorship	Stepped down after defeat in Federal War
1863–1868	Juan Crisóstomo Falcón	President of the republic and later president of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by constituent assembly and later elected	Stepped down in face of armed insurrection
1868	José Tadeo Monagas	Leader of revolutionary army	Triumph of insurrection	Passed away
1868–1870	José Ruperto Monagas	Chief of army staff and later president of the republic	Maintained power after his father passed away; later elected	Ousted by insurrection

1870–1877	Antonio Guzmán Blanco	General-in-chief of constitutional army of the federation and later president of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Triumph of insurrection; ratified through elections	End of constitutional period
1877–1879	Francisco Linares Alcántara	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by elections	Passed away
1879–1884	Antonio Guzmán Blanco	Revolution supreme director; president of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Triumph of insurrection; appointed later by Congress	End of constitutional period
1884–1886	Joaquín Crespo	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Federal Council	End of constitutional period
1886–1888	Antonio Guzmán Blanco	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Federal Council	End of constitutional period
1888–1890	Juan Pablo Rojas Paúl	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Federal Council	End of constitutional period
1890–1892	Raimundo Andueza Palacios	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Federal Council	Ousted by rebellion
1892–1898	Joaquín Crespo	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Triumph of insurrection; appointed later by elections	End of constitutional period
1898–1899	Ignacio Andrade	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by elections	Ousted by rebellion

(continued)

<i>Period</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Origin of Mandate</i>	<i>End of Mandate</i>
1899–1908	Cipriano Castro	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Triumph of insurrection; later appointed by Congress	Ousted by coup d'état
1908–1914	Juan Vicente Gómez	Provisional president, later president of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Triumph of a coup d'état; later elected by Congress	End of constitutional period
1914–1922	Victorino Márquez Bustillos/Juan Vicente Gómez	Máquez Bustillos: provisional president (in 1914 and later from 1915 to 1922); Gómez: army commander and since 1915 elected president	Appointed by Congress	End of constitutional period
1922–1929	Juan Vicente Gómez	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Congress	End of constitutional period
1929–1931	Juan Bautista Pérez	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela; Juan Vicente Gómez: army commander-in-chief	Appointed by Congress	Stepped down before Congress
1931–1935	Juan Vicente Gómez	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Congress	Passed away
1935–1941	Eleazar López Contreras	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed as president in charge after death of Gómez according to the constitutional procedures; later appointed by Congress	End of constitutional period

1941–1945	Isaías Medina Angarita	President of the Estados Unidos de Venezuela	Appointed by Congress	Ousted by coup d'état
1945–1948	Rómulo Betancourt	President of the Junta Revolucionaria de Gobierno	Triumph of rebellion	End of constitutional period
1948	Rómulo Gallegos	President of the republic	Appointed by elections	Ousted by coup d'état
1948–1950	Carlos Delgado Chalbaud	President of the Junta Militar de Gobierno	Triumph of military coup	Assassinated
1950–1952	Germán Suárez Flamerich	President of the Junta de Gobierno	Appointed by Junta Militar de Gobierno	Stepped down before the Military High Command
1952–1958	Marcos Pérez Jiménez	President of the republic	Appointed by Military High Command and later appointed by Congress	Ousted by rebellion
1958	Wolfgang Larrazábal	President of the Junta de Gobierno	Triumph of a rebellion	Stepped down
1958	Edgar Sanabria	President of the Junta de Gobierno	Appointed by Junta de Gobierno	End of period
1959–1964	Rómulo Betancourt	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
1964–1969	Raúl Leoni	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
1969–1974	Rafael Caldera	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period

(continued)

<i>Period</i>	<i>President</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Origin of Mandate</i>	<i>End of Mandate</i>
1974–1979	Carlos Andrés Pérez	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
1979–1984	Luis Herrera Campíns	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
1984–1988	Jaime Lusinchi	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
1988–1993	Carlos Andrés Pérez	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	Removed by Congress
1993–1994	Ramón J. Velásquez	President of the republic	Appointed by Congress	End of constitutional period
1994–1999	Rafael Caldera	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
1999–2001	Hugo Chávez Frías	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of period due to change in constitution
2001–2007	Hugo Chávez Frías	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	End of constitutional period
2007–2013	Hugo Chávez Frías	President of the republic	Appointed in universal elections	Passed away

Appendix C

Population

	Population 1920–1995	Population 1996–1999	Population 2000–2016	Percent Growth
Source	FACES ULA	Baptista (2003)	INE	
1920	2,992,468			
1921	3,008,122			0.52
1922	3,024,761			0.55
1923	3,048,789			0.79
1924	3,077,150			0.93
1925	3,114,434			1.21
1926	3,152,362			1.22
1927	3,185,407			1.05
1928	3,220,758			1.11
1929	3,259,256			1.20
1930	3,300,214			1.26
1931	3,335,733			1.08
1932	3,368,440			0.98
1933	3,400,586			0.95
1934	3,430,798			0.89
1935	3,464,993			1.00
1936	3,509,618			1.29
1937	3,565,014			1.58
1938	3,623,302			1.64
1939	3,699,042			2.09
1940	3,783,780			2.29

	Population 1920–1995	Population 1996–1999	Population 2000–2016	Percent Growth
1941	3,857,666			1.95
1942	3,934,429			1.99
1943	4,019,937			2.17
1944	4,114,006			2.34
1945	4,223,014			2.65
1946	4,346,854			2.93
1947	4,485,785			3.20
1948	4,655,655			3.79
1949	4,843,395			4.03
1950	5,034,838			3.95
1951	5,229,331			3.86
1952	5,426,503			3.77
1953	5,647,310			4.07
1954	5,892,423			4.34
1955	6,153,311			4.43
1956	6,420,381			4.34
1957	6,686,247			4.14
1958	6,944,599			3.86
1959	7,210,141			3.82
1960	7,493,760			3.93
1961	7,785,664			3.90
1962	8,085,999			3.86
1963	8,390,451			3.77
1964	8,703,738			3.73
1965	9,025,676			3.70
1966	9,351,424			3.61
1967	9,695,574			3.68
1968	10,044,467			3.60
1969	10,383,274			3.37

	Population 1920–1995	Population 1996–1999	Population 2000–2016	Percent Growth
1970	10,718,047			3.22
1971	11,053,501			3.13
1972	11,399,047			3.13
1973	11,748,395			3.06
1974	12,117,759			3.14
1975	12,522,721			3.34
1976	12,934,310			3.29
1977	13,341,371			3.15
1978	13,779,195			3.28
1979	14,237,753			3.33
1980	14,703,316			3.27
1981	15,185,263			3.28
1982	15,687,032			3.30
1983	16,178,827			3.14
1984	16,658,350			2.96
1985	17,150,880			2.96
1986	17,620,080			2.74
1987	18,068,634			2.55
1988	18,526,716			2.54
1989	19,012,783			2.62
1990	19,544,888			2.80
1991	20,104,767			2.86
1992	20,638,452			2.65
1993	21,152,844			2.49
1994	21,721,169			2.69
1995	22,200,839	21,362,034		2.21
1996		21,824,755		2.17
1997		22,276,381		2.07
1998		22,726,765		2.02

	Population 1920–1995	Population 1996–1999	Population 2000–2016	Percent Growth
1999		23,193,040		2.05
2000		24,124,274	24,394,145	4.02
2001			24,802,885	1.68
2002			25,212,127	1.65
2003			25,622,082	1.63
2004			26,032,946	1.60
2005			26,444,921	1.58
2006			26,858,165	1.56
2007			27,272,712	1.54
2008			27,688,638	1.53
2009			28,105,913	1.51
2010			28,524,411	1.49
2011			28,944,070	1.47
2012			29,365,451	1.46
2013			29,786,263	1.43
2014			30,206,307	1.41
2015			30,620,404	1.37
2016			31,028,637	1.33

Appendix D

Population Pyramid (2011 Census)

	<i>Gender</i>		
<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
< 4	1,254,208	1,183,423	2,437,631
5–9	1,236,217	1,166,147	2,402,364
10–14	1,298,191	1,218,588	2,516,779
15–19	1,336,159	1,305,161	2,641,320
20–24	1,280,125	1,280,524	2,560,649
25–29	1,159,400	1,184,932	2,344,332
30–34	1,105,617	1,114,124	2,219,741
35–39	942,311	962,942	1,905,253
40–44	873,509	881,981	1,755,490
45–49	747,704	781,077	1,528,781
50–54	651,255	686,679	1,337,934
55–59	530,935	577,864	1,108,799
60–64	407,656	440,702	848,358
65–69	267,691	300,997	568,688
70–74	189,285	221,170	410,455
75–79	130,126	162,866	292,992
80–84	78,996	109,899	188,895
85–89	40,560	63,581	104,141
90–94	14,875	25,495	40,370
> 95	4,932	10,026	14,958
Total	13,549,752	13,678,178	27,227,930

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2011 Census, <http://www.redatam.ine.gob.ve/Censo2011/index.html>; CEPAL/CELADE 2003–2013.

Appendix E

Racial Structure (2011 Census)

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Black</i>	<i>Afro-Venezuelan</i>	<i>Mixed</i>	<i>White</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Total</i>
Male	461,918	95,181	7,001,959	5,379,653	145,297	13,084,008
Female	293,708	85,963	6,592,644	6,110,694	158,396	13,241,405
Total	755,626	181,144	13,594,603	11,490,347	303,693	26,325,413

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2011 Census, <http://www.redatam.ine.gob.ve/Censo2011/index.html>; CEPAL/CELADE 2003–2013.

Appendix F

Real GDP

	1970–1950 (Million Bs. 1984)	1950–1968 (Million Bs. 1957)	1968–1984 (Million Bs. 1968)	1984–1997 (Million Bs. 1984)	1997–2014 (Thousand Bs. 1997 in the Currency Instituted in 2008)	2015–2016 (Thousand Bs. 1997 in the Currency Instituted in 2008)	Percent Growth
Source	Baptista (2003)	Central Bank	Central Bank	Central Bank	Central Bank	IMF Estimate	
1920	7,261						
1921	7,444						2.52
1922	7,849						5.44
1923	9,272						18.13
1924	11,488						23.90
1925	15,347						33.59
1926	19,642						27.99
1927	22,433						14.21
1928	27,585						22.97
1929	31,732						15.03
1930	31,170						–1.77
1931	26,579						–14.73
1932	25,152						–5.37
1933	27,893						10.90

1934	30,842								10.57
1935	33,289								7.93
1936	35,308								6.07
1937	42,992								21.76
1938	47,338								10.11
1939	52,120								10.10
1940	46,611								-10.57
1941	53,154								14.04
1942	41,766								-21.42
1943	43,195								3.42
1944	61,386								42.11
1945	72,143								17.52
1946	86,848								20.38
1947	101,784								17.20
1948	113,101								11.12
1949	116,978								3.43
1950	119,559	12,727							2.21
1951		14,212							11.67
1952		15,247							7.28

(continued)

	1970–1950 (Million Bs. 1984)	1950–1968 (Million Bs. 1957)	1968–1984 (Million Bs. 1968)	1984–1997 (Million Bs. 1984)	1997–2014 (Thousand Bs. 1997 in the Currency Instituted in 2008)	2015–2016 (Thousand Bs. 1997 in the Currency Instituted in 2008)	Percent Growth
Source	Baptista (2003)	Central Bank	Central Bank	Central Bank	Central Bank	IMF Estimate	
1953		16,190					6.18
1954		17,749					9.63
1955		19,325					8.88
1956		21,366					10.56
1957		23,847					11.61
1958		24,164					1.33
1959		26,065					7.87
1960		27,103					3.98
1961		28,475					5.06
1962		31,050					9.04
1963		33,177					6.85
1964		36,407					9.74
1965		38,543					5.87
1966		39,444					2.34

1967		41,033							4.03
1968		43,167	45,155						5.20
1969			47,038						4.17
1970			50,634						7.64
1971			52,189						3.07
1972			53,889						3.26
1973			57,260						6.26
1974			60,732						6.06
1975			64,417						6.07
1976			70,067						8.77
1977			74,777						6.72
1978			76,376						2.14
1979			77,396						1.34
1980			75,857						-1.99
1981			75,628						-0.30
1982			76,144						0.68
1983			71,867						-5.62
1984			70,894			420,072			-1.35
1985					420,884				0.19

(continued)

	1970–1950 (Million Bs. 1984)	1950–1968 (Million Bs. 1957)	1968–1984 (Million Bs. 1968)	1984–1997 (Million Bs. 1984)	1997–2014 (Thousand Bs. 1997 in the Currency Instituted in 2008)	2015–2016 (Thousand Bs. 1997 in the Currency Instituted in 2008)	Percent Growth
Source	Baptista (2003)	Central Bank	Central Bank	Central Bank	Central Bank	IMF Estimate	
1986				448,285			6.51
1987				464,341			3.58
1988				491,372			5.82
1989				449,262			–8.57
1990				478,320			6.47
1991				524,860			9.73
1992				556,669			6.06
1993				558,202			0.28
1994				545,087			–2.35
1995				566,627			3.95
1996				565,506			–0.20
1997				601,534	41,943,151		6.37
1998					42,066,487		0.29
1999					39,554,925		–5.97

2000					41,013,293			3.69
2001					42,405,381			3.39
2002					38,650,110			-8.86
2003					35,652,678			-7.76
2004					42,172,343			18.29
2005					46,523,649			10.32
2006					51,116,533			9.87
2007					55,591,059			8.75
2008					58,525,074			5.28
2009					56,650,924			-3.20
2010					55,807,510			-1.49
2011					58,138,269			4.18
2012					61,409,103			5.63
2013					62,233,885			1.34
2014					59,810,257			-3.89
2015							56,090,059	-6.22
2016							50,481,053	-10.00

Appendix G

Inflation

	<i>1921–1950</i>	<i>1951–2013</i>	<i>2014–2016</i>
<i>Source</i>	<i>Baptista (2003)</i>	<i>Central Bank</i>	<i>IMF</i>
1920			
1921	–25 percent		
1922	–10 percent		
1923	1 percent		
1924	4 percent		
1925	4 percent		
1926	3 percent		
1927	–4 percent		
1928	–1 percent		
1929	–4 percent		
1930	–7 percent		
1931	–3 percent		
1932	–8 percent		
1933	–9 percent		
1934	–13 percent		
1935	–3 percent		
1936	6 percent		
1937	–6 percent		
1938	–1 percent		
1939	–1 percent		
1940	6 percent		
1941	6 percent		

	<i>1921–1950</i>	<i>1951–2013</i>	<i>2014–2016</i>
<i>Source</i>	<i>Baptista (2003)</i>	<i>Central Bank</i>	<i>IMF</i>
1942	6 percent		
1943	8 percent		
1944	9 percent		
1945	11 percent		
1946	10 percent		
1947	7 percent		
1948	–3 percent		
1949	–1 percent		
1950	6 percent		
1951		4 percent	
1952		0 percent	
1953		–2 percent	
1954		1 percent	
1955		–1 percent	
1956		1 percent	
1957		1 percent	
1958		2 percent	
1959		4 percent	
1960		1 percent	
1961		2 percent	
1962		–1 percent	
1963		2 percent	
1964		2 percent	
1965		3 percent	
1966		1 percent	
1967		0 percent	
1968		3 percent	
1969		2 percent	

	<i>1921–1950</i>	<i>1951–2013</i>	<i>2014–2016</i>
<i>Source</i>	<i>Baptista (2003)</i>	<i>Central Bank</i>	<i>IMF</i>
1970		4 percent	
1971		3 percent	
1972		3 percent	
1973		6 percent	
1974		12 percent	
1975		8 percent	
1976		7 percent	
1977		8 percent	
1978		7 percent	
1979		20 percent	
1980		20 percent	
1981		10 percent	
1982		8 percent	
1983		7 percent	
1984		16 percent	
1985		9 percent	
1986		13 percent	
1987		40 percent	
1988		36 percent	
1989		81 percent	
1990		36 percent	
1991		31 percent	
1992		32 percent	
1993		46 percent	
1994		71 percent	
1995		57 percent	
1996		103 percent	
1997		38 percent	

	<i>1921–1950</i>	<i>1951–2013</i>	<i>2014–2016</i>
<i>Source</i>	<i>Baptista (2003)</i>	<i>Central Bank</i>	<i>IMF</i>
1998		30 percent	
1999		20 percent	
2000		13 percent	
2001		12 percent	
2002		31 percent	
2003		27 percent	
2004		19 percent	
2005		14 percent	
2006		17 percent	
2007		23 percent	
2008		32 percent	
2009		27 percent	
2010		27 percent	
2011		29 percent	
2012		20 percent	
2013		53 percent	
2014			69 percent
2015			181 percent
2016			720 percent

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INTRODUCTION

The English-speaking reader who wants to know about Venezuelan reality meets with two fundamental problems: the lack of literature in their language and the shortage of general works that can be used as guidance. However, since 1958, a combination of a system of liberties and abundant oil resources allowed a major expansion of the university system, which increased in quality and quantity the economic, geographic, sociological, and historical studies of Venezuela. In many cases, this was the period when the professionalization of these disciplines generated a new visualization and understanding of the country. Similarly, the importance of oil wealth and the effectiveness of a democratic model that seemed to be going well until the 1980s attracted to Venezuela the attention of oil companies and political analysts. Despite this, Venezuelan scholars and researchers did not often offer overviews or synthetic works, nor translate their work into other languages. Guillermo Morón was an exception. In 1971, he published his five-volume *Historia General de Venezuela*, the last such work written. A little earlier, in 1963, he brought to light *A History of Venezuela*, issued

many times in English in the United States and in Britain by both commercial and university publishers. Morón's work has been criticized as Eurocentric and excessively attached to the traditional model of *histoire événementielle*, focused on facts and men and not on broader sociohistorical problems. This is partially true. However, although it does not reflect the great historiographic changes that were occurring at the time (partly because Morón is not a Marxist), for a long time it was one of the few reference books available to English-speaking readers.

In 1992, the historian Elias Pino Iturrieta published *Historia mínima de Venezuela*, a book that did attempt to synthesize the recent professional historiography. Inspired by the *Historia mínima de México*, as the title suggests, it brings together short works with state-of-the-art vision on each of their subjects. It was a bestseller and is still being used in many universities, but unfortunately it has not been translated into English. The same can be said of the largest historiographical project in Venezuela during the second half of the last century: the *Diccionario de Historia de Venezuela*, published in 1988 by Fundación Empresas Polar (an enlarged second edition appeared in 1997) and completed under Manuel Pérez Vila's supervision. This four-volume work is an indispensable reference for anyone who wants to study Venezuelan history, society, economy, and geography. In 2000, Fundación Polar also published a didactic and richly illustrated history, *Historia de Venezuela en imágenes*, which makes available to a general audience the latest developments in the discipline. Meanwhile, the Universidad Pedagógica Experimental Libertador has published a series of manuals on the history of Venezuela for teacher-training purposes, which could be useful to a wider audience but has not been released beyond its campus. However, as in the case of the book edited by Pino Iturrieta, none of these works are available in English.

To the eyes of North American and European academia, Venezuela was seen for a long time as a "free and stable" country, much less interesting than the restive 1980s Central America or the Southern Cone dictatorships. At the same time, the fact that no Venezuelan writer achieved a prominent position during the 1960s boom of Latin American literature encouraged this disinterest. Finally, the relatively prosperous democracy of the time meant that very few Venezuelans emigrated or went into exile and few academics moved to the United States, putting at a disadvantage *venezolanistas* studies compared to those of other Latin American countries. However, in 1982, Oxford University Press published *Venezuela: The Search for Order, the Dream of Progress* by the American historian John Lombardi. There is a consensus that this is one of the best general histories of Venezuela, even among Venezuelan historians. Two years later Stranford University Press published Judith Ewell's *Venezuela: A Century of Change*, a useful insight into the 20th century.

From the 1990s, this situation began to change. With the crisis of their economic model, Venezuelans began to migrate and get noticed in their countries of destination; also, fresh news from Venezuela indicated an increasingly contentious reality. After the *Caracazo* riots in 1989, two failed coups in 1992, and the arrival of Hugo Chávez to the presidency in 1999, the seemingly "boring" country of previous decades began to attract attention. Chávez's active foreign policy, aimed at creating an alternative pole to the United States, made this even more noticeable. He soon created a network of allies in Latin America, reaching an enormous influence in some countries, and

strengthened ties with Iran, Russia, China, and other U.S. rivals. Chávez became a figure of great resonance in the media, generating real enthusiasm in some cases and dislike in others. By that means the academy, state agencies, and many American and European companies discovered how little they knew of a country that was giving so much to talk about. The seventh world oil producer and holder of the largest proven reserves in the world, it is also a country full of problems, as evidenced by having the biggest inflation rates and, by some estimates, crime rates worldwide in 2016. After having an oil boom between 2004 and 2008 with income of around two billion dollars, in 2016 the country suffered an immense economic contraction and probably the largest supply crisis in its history. This kind of paradox confuses Venezuelans and, of course, foreigners as well.

As a result, many publishers and centers of American studies began to investigate and publish works on Venezuela. This bibliography is expected to be a guide for researchers who want to approach the story and, in general, the Venezuelan life. We have tried to include as much literature in English as possible. We have also divided it by subject area for the ease of the reader. Four criteria guided the selection: (1) We sought to offer the most current literature available; on occasion, because of their influence in Venezuelan historiography, classics are included, even though these do not reflect the contemporary perspective. (2) The selection has privileged those works able to offer the widest possible view of each period or theme. Therefore, without prejudice to their value, works with narrow scopes have been omitted, with the exception of those whose theoretical or methodological qualities make them important. (3) The books are always referenced in their first edition in order to facilitate a fairer weighting by the nonspecialist reader. Placing a book by its latest edition can lead to a significant confusion for those not previously familiar with the authors, their currents of thought, and historiographical schools. (4) Sometimes a book inevitably fit several categories. An effort was made to place it in the category that defined it best; however, those interested in specific areas such as social, economic, or cultural history should also look at the sections on colonial, 19th-century, and contemporary history. It is also important for readers to note that Venezuela does not consider its independence a part of colonial history, and when we speak of the 19th century, we mean the postindependence period between 1830 and 1900.

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